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RESOURCE GUIDE

PRIMARY, JUNIOR, INTERMEDIATE, AND SENIOR DIVISIONS

NATIVE LANGUAGES

A SUPPORT DOCUMENT FOR THE TEACHING OF NATIVE LANGUAGES 1989

Ministry of Education
Ontario

Chris Ward, Minister
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RESOURCE GUIDE

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INTRODUCTION

This resource guide is intended to serve as a support document for the curriculum guideline Native Languages, 1987.[1] The guideline provides teachers with essential information on the NSL program and includes materials outlining the basic principles of five of the languages most commonly spoken in Ontario. This support document provides background information on second-language teaching techniques and suggests teaching strategies and resources for Native-language teachers. The materials in this resource guide and in the guideline are complementary, and the two documents are intended to be used in conjunction with one another.

This support document contains seven major sections. The first section, "An Overview of Language Teaching Methods", explains the underlying principles of the most common approaches to language instruction. The information in this section is intended to help teachers to look objectively at their teaching practices and to assess them critically in light of the objectives to be achieved. Four methods are discussed and compared: the grammar-translation, audio-lingual, situational, and communicative methods.

The second section, "Teaching the Four Language Skills", contains practical suggestions and activities for the Native-language classroom. The examples are in English, since it is the language that all Native-language teachers have in common. Grade levels or proficiency levels have not been specified for many of the activities, which can be adapted to suit different requirements. The examples of teaching strategies and procedures are based largely on the teaching of English as a second language. Native-language teachers will at times have to adapt the suggestions to apply them to the language patterns and structure of their Native language.

The next section, "Teaching Grammar", discusses the formal teaching of grammar and provides sample lessons.

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1. Ministry of Education, Ontario, Native Languages, 1987, Part A: Policy and Program Considerations (Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1987). Sections dealing with specific language groups are currently being developed.

"Developing a Theme", the fourth section, illustrates methods of long-term planning and shows how to build lessons around themes.

The evaluation section examines both program evaluation and student assessment in detail. It is followed by an examination of the relationship of the NSL program to the school and the community and a section on the development of resource materials. A list of resources concludes the document.

The two principal objectives of the NSL program - the development of language skills and the development of cultural awareness - are inseparable. Cultures vary in the way they view and express different aspects of life; learning a language, therefore, means discovering a culture's forms of self-expression. It is important that teachers of Native languages use "authentic" language in their classrooms (that is, language that is really used in the community) in order to ensure that the language that students learn is culturally accurate.

It is hoped that teachers of Native languages will find this resource guide of practical use, both in its effect on their teaching methods and in its selection of concrete suggestions, so that they can make learning the Native language a positive experience for their students. Native-language instruction in schools not only encourages language maintenance but also fosters positive attitudes and strengthens cultural identity in Native students.

AN OVERVIEW OF LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

Introduction

The teaching method highlighted in the Native languages guideline is the communicative method, which aims to teach language in a way that allows learners to use it in everyday speech. A comparison of this method, also called communicative language teaching (CLT), with other, older methods familiar to most language learners will indicate how it differs from them. This comparison will also identify the relative strengths and weaknesses of these other methods.

Table 1 highlights the major features of four teaching methods: the grammar-translation, audio-lingual, situational, and communicative approaches to language teaching. A more detailed analysis, with examples, is given below.

The Grammar-Translation Method

As its name suggests, the grammar-translation method places a strong emphasis on grammatical rules. The rules are first formally taught and are then applied in language practice. For example, students learning the English rule that the verb form following a preposition ends in -ing are given exercises that require them to supply the correct form of the verb:

I am interested in _____ it. (read)
He insists on _____. (go)

Isolated sentences or short texts are translated from the students' mother tongue into the second language and vice versa (e.g., "He went to the house"; "Il est allé à la maison"). These sentences generally emphasize a grammatical point and are not particularly meaningful on their own. Students learn vocabulary through lists memorized in translation or through oral drills that elicit single-word responses to questions (e.g., "What is the French word for house?" "La maison"). Little or no attention is paid to the idea of context or correct usage (for example, whether a word should be used in formal or informal situations).

The four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) are given very unequal treatment in the grammar-translation method. The main emphasis is on

Table 1: Teaching Methods

Characteristics	Grammar-Translation	Audio-lingual	Situational	Communicative
Goals	Ability to read and write	Automatic production of language patterns	Ability to communicate in set situations	Meaningful communication
Role of teacher	Acts as an authority	Provides models	Provides models	Sets up activities, gives feedback, acts as a resource
Role of student	Does what the teacher says	Mimics the teacher	Mimics the teacher	Engages in creative, meaningful communication
Characteristic activities	Grammar exercises, translation	Mimicking and memorizing drills and dialogues	Memorizing dialogues	Problem solving, role playing, transmitting and receiving real information
Skills emphasized	Writing, reading	Speaking, listening	Speaking, listening	Listening, speaking, reading, writing
Positive features	Provides explanations of grammatical rules; allows comparison between languages; develops students' reading and writing skills	Provides practice in language patterns; stresses fluency; promotes good pronunciation	Provides practice for set situations; teaches vocabulary and language patterns in context	Highlights structural, conversational, and social aspects of language; is creative, meaningful, and authentic
Negative features	No speaking and listening; language often artificial	Boring; not creative	Limited to set situations; not creative	Demanding

reading. Students never compose in the second language but merely write out translations of single words, sentences, or short texts. Speaking practice consists of reading these translations aloud. There is no real listening practice. In classes using this method students and teachers generally use the first language far more than the language being learned.

The assumption behind the grammar-translation method is that students, once they have learned the grammatical rules of the second language, will be able to make the transition to speaking and understanding when they come to deal with the language in "real life". This transition, however, does not occur instantaneously. Rule-conscious learners have obvious problems expressing themselves: they find themselves searching aloud for the correct form at the same time as they attempt to communicate.

The grammar-translation method is clearly not communicative. Students do not convey their own ideas in writing or in speech, nor do they listen to ideas expressed by their classmates or teacher. Despite its drawbacks, however, some aspects of the grammar-translation method may occasionally play a useful role in Native-language classes. It can give students a basic grasp of grammatical structures and can, for example, be helpful in explaining differences or similarities between the students' first language and the language being taught.

The Audio-Lingual Method

The main aim of the audio-lingual method is to make students fluent speakers and efficient listeners. As the name (from the Latin audire, to listen, and lingua, tongue) suggests, teaching programs are based on dialogues and oral drills rather than on written texts. Unlike the grammar-translation method, rules of grammar are not taught. Students are expected to learn grammar unconsciously by repeating and memorizing examples of grammatical structures, which they practise in oral exercises. After students have heard and repeated examples of a particular structure (e.g., "I am sitting down now"; "I am writing on the chalkboard now") several times, they will learn, without explicit instruction, that the present continuous tense is made up of forms of to be followed by a verb in the -ing form. Thus, when they are required to describe an action taking place at the moment of speaking, they automatically produce a sentence such as "I am looking for a dictionary". When students construct incorrect sentences such as "I am

knowing the answer now" or "I am hating this weather", the whole process begins again with drills on the exceptions to the patterns.

Students in audio-lingual classes get a great deal of speaking practice. Through this practice they acquire a skill that gradually becomes automatic. With time, they are supposed to be able to select correct or appropriate expressions or grammatical forms automatically when they express themselves. In class, however, their responses are fixed, not spontaneous or individual. They are, in other words, not communicative.

Critics point to this aspect of the audio-lingual method as a serious limitation; since the emphasis is on learning automatic responses to fixed exercises, students learn to mimic expressions without necessarily understanding what they are saying. Their ability to express themselves is limited to the set phrases they have practised.

Despite this weakness, the following audio-lingual techniques can be useful in Native-language classes, as the extensive speaking practice thus provided can help students achieve fluency: repetition exercises, substitution drills, transformation drills, dictations, and sound-discrimination exercises.

In repetition exercises, students simply repeat what the teacher says:

Teacher: Today is Tuesday.
Students: Today is Tuesday.

In substitution drills, the teacher's original statement is used as a model for a series of similar statements that use different vocabulary:

Teacher: I went to the dance.
Students: I went to the dance.
Teacher: Band hall.
Students: I went to the band hall.
Teacher: Lake.
Students: I went to the lake.

In transformation drills, students change the form of an example given by the teacher to another form as directed, changing affirmatives to negatives, statements to questions, past tenses to present tenses, or, as below, active sentences to passive sentences:

Teacher: The dog bit the man.
Students: The man was bitten by the dog.

In sound-discrimination drills, students must distinguish between similar-sounding words. Students are provided with written lists of paired words ("joke/choke") or short sentences ("I want to live/I want to leave") that contain words that sound alike. They must distinguish which one of the pair the teacher has said aloud and must underline their choice.

The Situational Method

The situational method was developed in an attempt to make language instruction responsive to students' everyday needs. Instead of learning language out of context, students using the situational method have the opportunity to practise realistic communication by acting out "real" situations (e.g., at the store, in the post office) and learning typical dialogues for ordinary transactions, such as the following:

Student 1 (playing salesperson): Good morning.
Student 2 (playing customer): Good morning.
Student 1: How can I help you?
Student 2: I'd like to buy a card.
Student 1: What kind of card?
Student 2: A birthday card.

The limitations of this method are similar to those of audio-lingual techniques. There is no explicit instruction in grammar and no practice in spontaneous communication. Students merely memorize set pieces for particular situations and are generally unable to adapt these to other applications and to express themselves in other contexts. Although students learn useful vocabulary and basic language patterns in this method, they do not necessarily learn how to apply this knowledge outside the small number of situations taught.

The Communicative Method

Communicative teaching aims to avoid the weaknesses of the three methods discussed by focusing on the communicative aspect of language. Several different functions of language are involved: receiving and giving information; giving orders and making requests; describing objects and ideas; expressing opinions, feelings, and needs; and expressing concepts such as time, location, action, and intention.

Students require more than memorized expressions if they are really to communicate in a new language. They need to learn how to manipulate the vocabulary and structures they are taught and how to apply what they have learned in order to express what they want to say. They must also begin to master some of the idiosyncracies of the language and appreciate its subtleties. All of these skills can be taught through communicative teaching.

The communicative method emphasizes the use of the language in the classroom. Students learn to use the language in discussing issues and performing certain communicative functions. Discussions centre on issues and themes relevant to students' interests, such as family, friends, and social and cultural events. Students participate in problem-solving activities and functional exercises, such as inviting someone to a party, requesting information, asking for clarification, and expressing gratitude. Students are also taught how language changes according to the social setting and the person being addressed, and they practise adapting their speech to different contexts. Their speaking practice is thus realistic and informal and helps them learn to express themselves naturally. This does not mean that all formal teaching of language should be abandoned, however. Grammatical accuracy remains important and needs to be taught and practised.

Communicative language teaching can take many forms, depending on the emphasis favoured by the teacher. These include student-directed activities and multidisciplinary strategies, in which language learning is related to other subject areas, such as geography or history.

A model for the communicative method is provided by J. P. B. Allen.[2] As table 2 illustrates, Allen sees three levels of communicative competence - structural, functional, and experiential - which operate simultaneously rather than successively. Level 1, the structural level, gives students practice in grammatical structures. In level 2, the functional level, students learn how to construct written texts and oral conversations; substitution drills, transformation drills, question-and-answer exercises, and so on, help students achieve fluency. Level 3, the experiential level, emphasizes authentic, everyday language by giving students unstructured practice. The emphasis on each of the three levels can vary at the different stages of learning.

Allen's model relates well to the objectives of the NSL program, which includes both controlled and unstructured language practice and aims to develop in students an awareness of both the structural and functional workings of the Native language.

Table 2: Levels of Communicative Competence[3]

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Structural	Functional	Experiential
Focus on language	Focus on language	Focus on the use of language
a) Structural control	a) Discourse control	a) Situational or topical control
b) Materials simplified structurally	b) Materials simplified functionally	b) Authentic language
c) Mainly structural practice	c) Mainly discourse practice	c) Free practice

2. J. P. B. Allen, "A Three-Level Curriculum Model for Second-Language Education", The Canadian Modern Language Review 40 (1980), pp. 23-43.

3. Ibid., p. 36.

TEACHING THE FOUR LANGUAGE SKILLS

Basic Principles and Related Activities

Introduction

In both first- and second-language teaching, teachers often think of the expressive language skills (writing and speaking) as quite separate from the receptive skills (reading and listening). The communicative method unites these four skills. It places particular emphasis on listening skills, since in the past listening was not even recognized as a language skill, and listening skills are still often neglected in favour of an overwhelming emphasis on reading, writing, and speaking.

The communicative approach focuses not only on correct grammatical form but also on how language is used. Within each of the four skills, therefore, it identifies subskills that are used for different purposes: reading instructions on how to operate an appliance, for example, requires a different reading skill than does skimming an article for facts. The communicative method allows students to practise the subskills of all four language skills.

Native Languages, 1987 provides suggestions concerning the allocation of class time to the four language skills at different stages of the NSL program (see figure 1 of the guideline). It also provides a chart of objectives and activities that relate to each skill (see table 1). In the following sections the four skills are discussed, and particular activities are suggested.

Listening

Listening is particularly emphasized in communicative teaching. In the early stages, a "quiet period", during which students listen to the teacher but do not themselves speak, exposes them to the language's sound patterns before they actually understand the meaning of all the words.

At all stages teachers should use the Native language as much as possible in their classes. Some teachers use the language almost exclusively from the beginning, allowing students to respond in English if necessary, but using English themselves only for brief explanations. Teachers can use the Native language to greet students and

give them instructions (e.g., "Open your books"; "Repeat after me"), as well as for formal listening activities.

Listening activities can be quite simple; for example, students might listen to the teacher tell or read them a story with the aid of pictures or other visual material. Other, more complex, activities are also recommended, such as a science experiment or cooking activity. Teachers can, for example, give students verbal instructions, beginning with something simple (e.g., "Draw a house"; "Colour it red") and progressing to something more difficult (e.g., "On the floor plan, draw a table in the right-hand corner of the kitchen, under the window"). Students can also be given a map, on which they trace a route according to the teacher's spoken instructions.

The following dictation exercise is suitable for students who are not beginners. The teacher gives students sheets with short sentences (about five words each) written at the bottom. The sheets are folded over so that students cannot see the sentences. The teacher then dictates the sentences, and students write them out at the top of the sheet. When they are finished, they check their versions against the correct ones at the bottom of the sheet. Teachers must adjust the length and difficulty of the sentences to the ability of the class.

Speaking

The principal goal of most students in Native-language classes is to learn to speak. This means learning not only vocabulary and sentence structure but also how to produce the sounds of the language and how to reproduce the correct intonation (the modulation and the rising and falling of the voice) and stress patterns. Learning to speak also involves discourse development, which includes the ability to introduce and express ideas and to respond clearly and accurately to questions.

A wide range of speaking activities can be used - from oral drills to formal speeches and debates. Many teachers have their students begin speaking right at the start of instruction.

In one activity, which a Grade 3 Ojibwe teacher has found to be successful, a student playing the role of teacher asks the class to name the days of the week and the dates on an Ojibwe calendar. Every day a different "teacher" is selected. Pictures illustrating the day's

weather are attached to each day on the calendar, and students are asked to describe the weather as the "teacher" points to the pictures. In this way the children learn not only vocabulary and language patterns but also the differences between the past ("It was cold") and the present tense ("It is sunny"). Students also enjoy this activity because they get a chance to play the role of the teacher.

Other role-playing activities can be used for speaking practice. Students, for example, can play the parts of two customers, a waiter or waitress, a bus boy or bus girl, and a cashier in a restaurant. The props include toy dishes, order pads, a cash box, and play money. The scene can begin with the arrival of the customers and proceed through the taking of their orders, the setting of the table, the arrival of the food, the conversation of the customers ("This soup is cold"), and so on, until the bill is calculated and paid to the cashier.

This activity can be done by three groups of students in a forty-minute class, with time left over for other activities. Although it is short, it provides a great deal of useful language practice, involving greetings, requests, questions, conversations, numbers, and the names of dishes, drinks, and eating utensils. As a follow-up activity, teachers can draw or cut out pictures of additional items and write their Native-language names on the board. Students can then copy these new expressions into their notebooks and use them when the activity is repeated.

Other oral practice can involve games and songs that repeat certain structures. Advanced students can also prepare five-minute dialogues in pairs, in which they pretend, for example, to meet one another for the first time, and ask each other questions such as "What is your name?" and "Where do you live?". The preparation of such conversations often prompts students to learn new vocabulary.

Problem solving is a technique for speaking practice that allows students to work independently in groups. The problem chosen should be one that students will want to discuss. Teachers can prepare for a problem-solving exercise by handing out background information or a description of the problem in written form. To prolong the discussion, teachers can ask the group to come to an

agreement. The following is a sample problem for discussion for students with a high level of language proficiency:

> Your school has strict regulations about cheating. Anyone caught cheating will be expelled for two weeks. One day during a test, the teacher has to leave the classroom and asks you to keep an eye on the class. While the teacher is gone, you notice that your friend Peter is cheating. You know that he is having trouble at home and could not study for the test. But you also know that cheating is wrong and you are responsible for the class. What do you do? Do you:
>
> - pretend that you did not see Peter cheating?
> - tell Peter that you saw him and warn him never to do it again?
> - tell the teacher?

After each group has reached a consensus, it reports its decision to the class.

Reading

The lack of Native-language materials at present creates serious problems for the development of reading skills. Teachers, therefore, must be prepared to be innovative in creating materials, making use of available resources, and adapting the materials on hand for a variety of purposes (see pages 83-89).

The reading and writing of Native languages involve special challenges. Some languages use syllabics. Others, even those using the Roman alphabet, have markers for glottal stops and other signs. Reading activities must give students the opportunity to familiarize themselves thoroughly with the conventions of Native writing systems.

In addition, students must practise the various subskills of reading, such as reading for information (as in reading instructions or recipes), skimming (glancing over a text to find out what it is about), scanning (glancing over a text to find a specific piece of information), and reading between the lines (making inferences from what is said), as well as analytical skills, such as distinguishing between fact and opinion.

Local publications in the Native language, such as newspapers or newsletters, can be used for a wide range of activities; for example:

- A game can be organized in which groups of students scan the document looking for answers to questions given by the teacher (e.g., "On what page can you find information about X?"; "Which paragraph in story Y deals with Z?"; "Are there any numbers higher than 100?"). The first group to finish is the winner.

- Teachers can prepare questions about content for students to answer.

- Teachers can use articles for class tests, deleting every tenth word or word part and asking students to fill them in.

Follow-up activities can include comprehension questions, questions that ask students to identify opinions as opposed to facts, and so on.

Short stories - composed by the students or the teacher - can be used for reading practice. Students can read the story carefully and answer simple questions of fact or more complex questions involving inference and imagination. Students can also gain reading practice by reading aloud stories that they have written.

Teachers of languages with a syllabic alphabet can make sets of alphabet cards and display them in the classroom.

Writing

Writing can be introduced to Native-language classes at the end of the Primary Division. Students can dictate stories to the teacher and watch as he or she writes them on the board. Young children can make booklets by drawing pictures and writing short captions. In the absence of textbooks, students can use sentences copied from the board or even lists of vocabulary for work at home, making up stories with them or discussing them with their parents.

Writing becomes more important and is allotted more class time when students reach the Intermediate and Senior Divisions (see Native Languages, 1987, Part A, figure 1). There they begin more creative writing, beginning with paragraphs and progressing to complete compositions.

In addition to mastering vocabulary and language patterns, students will need to learn how to organize written work. Different languages have different styles of organization and presentation. Teachers should provide students with models of good written form appropriate to the language being taught.

Teachers can ask students to write paragraphs with a specific purpose - to describe a step-by-step process (e.g., how to repair a flat tire), to describe a person or thing (e.g., their room at home), to define something (e.g., a herb garden), to make a comparison between two things (e.g., living in the city and living in the country), or to explain the cause or describe the effect of an event or circumstance (e.g., a house fire, being bilingual). Students can use facts, statistics, anecdotes, and personal observations to achieve the purpose of their paragraphs.

Not all writing in secondary classes need be formal. Students can also write personal letters, postcards, and short notes to their friends as well as short stories and poems. They can interview community members and prepare written versions of their interviews, perhaps even collecting these in booklet form and combining them with descriptions of the community.

In writing activities, preparatory work (in which students read aloud and discuss topics before writing about them) and group work (which allows students to explore their ideas together) are essential.

Language Drills

Introduction

Drills give students practice in working with grammatical structures and other language patterns. Drills are usually oral, although written exercises can be used as a follow-up activity.

Drills can be grouped in three categories - mechanical, meaningful, and communicative drills. A drill is mechanical if it can be performed without understanding (a repetition drill, where students merely repeat what the teacher says, is one example). A drill is meaningful if students must understand what they are saying in order to do it correctly. Instruction on the prepositions under and on, for example, can be followed by drill questions requiring answers that

depend on the use of these prepositions (e.g., "Where is the book?" "It is on the desk"). A drill that is simply mechanical can be made more meaningful through the use of objects, pictures, or actions that illustrate the meaning of the words or sentences in the drill.

The third kind of drill is communicative. Keith Morrow describes three characteristics of communication:[4]

- An information gap exists. One person knows something that the other does not. The purpose of communication is to transfer this information.

- The participants have free choice in how they express themselves and what they say. The listener does not know what he or she is going to hear.

- There is an exchange between the people communicating. The communication is based on reaction and feedback to what has gone before.

To be considered communicative, a drill must exhibit these characteristics. Of the eight types of drill discussed below, only the last two (chain and question drills) are potentially communicative.

Use of Drills

Attitudes to the use of drills vary. Some teachers reject all drills, arguing that they teach language as an exercise rather than as a means of communication. Others see a value in chain and question drills, which can be communicative. Still others (particularly teachers of secondary students and adults), who follow in whole or in part a grammatical syllabus, use all kinds of drills. They argue that repetitive practice in language forms helps implant the language in students' minds and forms a basis for communication.

It is recommended that only chain and question drills be used with Primary and Junior students. Before Grade 7 or 8, students are easily bored by drills and see no point in doing them. Their time is more productively spent in

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4. Keith Johnson and Keith Morrow, Communication in the Classroom (London: Longman, 1983), pp. 62-63.

communicative activity or in games, which often have drill-like features. Whenever teachers use drills, they should attempt to make them less rigid and mechanical. They should also allow students to choose to some extent not only what to say but how to say it. Too much emphasis on one correct form will focus their minds exclusively on correct language, inhibiting them from experimenting with different forms. Such experimentation is essential to language learning and should be promoted. Students should be encouraged to get their meaning across during communicative drills, and they will achieve this goal more successfully if allowed to experiment.

Teachers of Intermediate and Senior students may wish to incorporate into their programs drills that involve language forms alone. Older students appear to benefit from these more limited drills, as these students have a greater appreciation of the importance of correct form. They also benefit, of course, from the more communicative drills recommended.

Since the aim of language drills is to promote good form, mistakes must be corrected when they are made. This need not be done harshly. Sometimes a raised eyebrow or a humorous remark will encourage students to correct themselves. Alternatively, the teacher can state the correct form and have students repeat it.

Types of Drills

The eight types of drills discussed below are based on drills used in teaching English as a second language. Adaptations for the Native-language classroom may be required. Teachers leading drills on nouns, for example, may wish to select only nouns of the same gender.

In the first six drills students begin by responding as a group. Once the teacher feels that students have mastered the drill, responses may be requested from individual students. These drills move quickly and last a minute or two at the most (with not more than a total of ten minutes of drills in any one lesson).

The last two drills involve individual responses from the outset. They are usually conducted at a more relaxed pace. Teachers first explain to the class the kind of response they want. Some teachers develop hand signals to indicate commands - whether students are to respond individually or as a group, whether a response is correct or incorrect, and so forth.

Note that all mechanical drills (items 1-6) can be made more meaningful through the use of objects, pictures, or actions.

1. Repetition Drills. Students repeat what the teacher says:

Teacher (holding up an apple or a picture of an apple): This is an apple.
Students: This is an apple.

Teacher (sitting down): I'm sitting at my desk.
Students: I'm sitting at my desk.

2. Substitution Drills. Students alter an original sentence by substituting words provided by the teacher. In the simplest form of these drills, the substitution occurs in the same slot each time:

Teacher: I like corn.
Students: I like corn.
Teacher: Bread.
Students: I like bread.

Substitution drills may also be quite complex, with students having to decide where the new word should be added to the sentence. The substitution may also require changing the form of the new word. To do these things correctly, students must generally understand the meaning of the sentences:

Teacher: I ate the cookie. She.
Students: She ate the cookie.
Teacher: Apple.
Students: She ate the apple.
Teacher: The boy.
Students: The boy ate the apple.
Teacher: Like.
Students: The boy liked the apple.

3. Transformation Drills. Students change the form of a given sentence, from positive to negative or active to passive, for example, or they change a statement to a question:

Teacher: He is sick.
Students: Is he sick?

The teacher's original sentence can usually be made meaningful by the use of an object, a picture, or a

demonstrated action. The fact that students can do the drill correctly does not, however, mean that they understand what they are saying.

4. Modification Drills. Students add to, remove, or rearrange items in a given sentence:

Teacher: Where is the book? Big.
Students: Where is the big book?
Teacher: My.
Students: Where is my big book?
Teacher: I gave the book to Vera. Her.
Students: I gave her the book.

5. Clause-Combination Drills. Students combine two short sentences:

Teacher: I have a book. It's blue.
Students: I have a blue book.

6. Question-and-Answer Drills. The teacher asks questions designed for the practice of a particular grammatical point (e.g., the use of certain prepositions), and students respond with answers that should be obvious:

Teacher: Where's the book?
Students: It's on the desk.

With this type of drill, the role of questioner, once modelled by the teacher, can be turned over to individual students working in small groups.

7. Chain Drills. The teacher starts the drill by using a particular form and then asking a student a question that requires the student to answer with the same form. The student then repeats the question. This continues until all students have had a turn:

Teacher: I like oranges. What do you like?
Student 1: I like apples. What do you like?
Student 2: I like candy. What do you like?

The question need not be repeated each time.

If students have a choice in the items they name, from pictures or objects at hand or from their own imaginations, the drill becomes communicative - at least in part. It then fulfils two of Johnson's criteria for communication: there is an information gap and a choice of response.

This drill can be modified for Primary and Junior students. If, for example, a student says "apples" instead of "I like apples", the teacher might extend the answer by saying "Billy likes apples" or "I like apples too, Billy". If a student says "Apples are good" instead of "I like apples", the teacher might say nothing at all, since the child has used a different but acceptable form; or he or she might say "Yes, Billy, apples are good; I like apples". The teacher's tone and attitude should express acceptance of the response as long as it is appropriate.

8. Question Drills. Students practise question forms in an activity similar to Twenty Questions, but with a limited number of possible "mystery items". For instance, pictures of eight different vehicles are put in a bag, and the teacher pulls them out one at a time. Students then ask "do you have" questions to identify the vehicle:

Student 1: Do you have a snowmobile?
Teacher: No.
Student 2: Do you have a car?
Teacher: No.
Student 3: Do you have a truck?
Teacher: Yes.

Student 3 then takes the teacher's place and answers the next series of questions.

Communicative Activities

Introduction

Communicative activities allow students to develop their proficiency in a language, especially as it is used in "real life" outside the classroom. Such activities are recommended for all teachers, not just for those who have adopted a strictly communicative approach. Activities must be geared to the students' level of language proficiency.

Before beginning a communicative activity, the teacher should ensure that students know what they are expected to do. Once students are capable of leading the activity, the teacher withdraws and does not subsequently intervene unless communication breaks down entirely or students become confused.

The teacher does not correct grammatical errors or incorrect answers during the activity. Students must be free to use whatever language resources they have, without

hesitation. They must be encouraged to experiment with forms with which they are not yet proficient, and they must be allowed to concentrate on content rather than form. They will inevitably make mistakes, but it should be remembered that the aim of these activities is to have students communicate, not produce polished sentences. During the activity the teacher makes notes identifying the most common areas of difficulty in grammar or language patterns. These can be dealt with in other activities at another time.

In communicative activities students must communicate with one another in order to achieve the objectives of the activities. If two students are given a problem to solve and they produce their solutions separately, for example, there has been no communication. In the activities suggested below, students must work together to produce a joint response.

After the activity, teachers should reinforce the communicative aspect of the exercise by providing positive feedback on students' ability to get their message across. With young children, encouraging words will suffice. With older students, teachers may suggest additional vocabulary or other approaches that students may find useful next time they play the game. Teachers may also discuss other aspects of communication, such as tone, degree of formality, turn taking, and so on. Teachers' comments on grammatical points in these feedback sessions should be positive and brief. An emphasis on correctness in this context could lead students to be too cautious out of fear of making mistakes.

Communicative activities can be adapted to the needs of students at all levels of proficiency. Students usually work in pairs or small groups, although some activities, such as debates, can involve the entire class as a group. In some cases, follow-up activities, during which the groups can compare and discuss their results, are suitable. Although most communicative exercises involve speaking and listening, adaptations can be made to integrate reading and writing skills.

Types of Communicative Activities

There are many ways of classifying communicative activities. The categories below represent one means of classification only and are not mutually exclusive. Teachers may wish to consult resources to build a larger

file of activities. They may also wish to record the impact of each activity and describe the optimum conditions for its use in the classroom.

Collecting and presenting information

1. Use Your Imagination. Students work in groups. Each group is given some objects (or pictures of objects). Small things that the teacher can carry to class are particularly suitable, such as matches, a toothbrush, or a can opener. The groups can be given the same or different objects. Each group must compile a list of uses for its objects. When they have done this, the groups come together to compare their lists.

Blobs of paint or spatters of ink on paper can be used in a variation of this activity. In this case each group must decide what objects or scenes can be identified in the patterns.

2. Changes. Students form groups of six to eight. Half of the students in each group leave the room and exchange items of clothing, jewellery, glasses, and so on with one another. While they are out, the remaining students try to remember what each individual was wearing. When their classmates return, those who remained in class must guess who has exchanged what with whom. The two halves of each group then switch roles. This activity can also be done by the class as a whole divided into two groups.

3. Back to Back. Students walk around the room. At a signal from the teacher, they pair up with the person nearest to them and stand back to back. They then take turns describing their partner's clothing and correct each other's mistakes. After three or four minutes the teacher gives another signal, and the students resume walking, pair up with a different partner, and repeat the exercise.

4. I Remember. Working in pairs, students draw pictures of memorable moments in their lives. They then discuss their illustrations with their partners, who can ask them questions.

5. Witness. The teacher shows students a picture for approximately five seconds. Students then describe in writing what they can remember of the picture. After forming groups, they compare their notes and compile a group list. The groups then compare their results. The picture is shown again at the end of the activity.

Variations of this activity may be used; for example, students can role-play a brief event, then describe and discuss it as above.

6. Last Week. Working in pairs, students describe and discuss the best and the worst events of the last week (or month or year). Volunteers can then relate their experiences to the class.

7. Twenty Questions. Students work in groups, each with a leader. The leader thinks of an object, a person, a place, or an event, and the others in the group ask questions to determine its identity. Only yes or no answers are allowed. Clues may be given (e.g., whether you can eat it, wear it, or travel in it). The questioners are allowed twenty questions or a specific amount of time, such as three minutes. Students take turns acting as leader.

8. Same - Different. Working in groups, students are given pairs of items, people, or activities (e.g., David and Goliath, hunting and fishing) and must make a list of what the paired items have in common and how they are different. After the lists are finished, the whole class compares and discusses the results.

9. Surveys. Working individually or in small groups, students can conduct surveys within or outside the classroom. The surveys can investigate attitudes and opinions on a variety of things (e.g., favourite television programs) or collect data on activities and habits (e.g., what foods are eaten for lunch, what sports are most commonly played), and a graph can be made of the results.

Students can also carry out a classroom survey, using a list of ten or more incomplete statements or descriptions followed by blank spaces in which they fill in appropriate names. Students must ask one another questions to identify individuals who fit the descriptions (e.g., someone who has a VCR _____; someone who has been to Timmins _____). Each student's name can be used only once.

10. Excursions. Working in groups or together as a class, students can be sent outside the classroom to collect information. Visits to stores, libraries, fire stations, or homes should be arranged in advance. Before the visit students should discuss what information they wish to gather and should compile a list of questions. They can record the information they collect and report it to the class at the end of the survey.

11. Gaps. Working in pairs, students are given two copies of information in the form of a list, diagram, map, or description. However, the information on one of the copies is not complete (or, both students' copies are incomplete, but with different information missing). By asking questions, students try to fill in the gaps. The lists below provide an example of a case in which both students are missing information. Each chart can be completed with information from the other.

A

	Sarah	Tommy	Carol	Derek	Ken
Sisters	3	1	0	4	
Brothers		4	3		5
Pet	dog	cat		pig	none
Favourite sport	broomball	baseball		hockey	football
Wears glasses	no		yes	yes	no

B

	Sarah	Tommy	Carol	Derek	Ken
Sisters	3		0	4	2
Brothers	1	4		0	5
Pet		cat	dog	pig	none
Favourite sport	broomball		hockey	hockey	
Wears glasses	no	no	yes		no

12. Differences. Working in pairs, students are given similar pictures that have a certain number of differences. Students are told how many differences there are. (Pairs of pictures that are not quite the same can be found in children's magazines or can be made by the teacher.) Students describe their pictures to one another and attempt to identify the differences without looking at their partner's pictures.

13. Copy Cats. Working in pairs, students are given pictures or geometric designs. As above, they must not look at one another's pictures. One partner describes his or her picture step by step, and the other attempts to draw it. They then exchange roles. At the end of the activity they compare and discuss the different versions.

14. Shuffled Pictures/Stories. Students are divided into pairs or groups, each of which is given a section of a comic strip or some other sequential picture that has been cut up. Each pair or group then describes its piece of the sequence to the other groups. Finally, students discuss the strip and try to determine the correct order of the pieces.

To vary this activity, teachers can use a story instead of a picture. Stories can be composed by the teacher and written on cards, with one sentence on each card. Students try to reconstruct the story from the isolated sentences.

15. Problem Solving. Working in groups, students are given a specific problem and told to propose a solution within a specified time. Each group member states and defends his or her opinion and tries to convince the rest of the group. (Each group can propose only one solution.) The proposed solutions are then discussed with the whole class.

The simplest kind of problem is the practical problem based on concrete but hypothetical circumstances, such as the following:

> A person is going on a camping trip. He will be gone three days at a time when the temperature will be just below freezing. He can carry only a pack weighing ten kilograms. What should he take?

Students are then given a list of items, with their respective weights, and must choose supplies weighing no more than ten kilograms. The list should be designed so that the choice is not easy. Students then explain their choices to the class.

Students can also tackle such problems as how to behave and how to express oneself in certain circumstances. For example, students can suggest and demonstrate ways of refusing something politely.

16. Rating. Working in groups, students brainstorm to produce a list of the characteristics of a certain kind of person - a good prime minister, chief, actor, and so on. The groups then come together to compare their results.

In a variation of this technique, the teacher gives students a list of characteristics (e.g., of a good teacher), which students then rate in order of importance. In another variation, the teacher gives students a list of food items, which students then rate according to such criteria as nutritional value, caloric value, cost, and taste.

17. Planning. Working in groups, students are given a few basic items of information and asked to plan a hypothetical event, such as a sports day or a hunting trip. Details should be specified (e.g., the number of judges and the equipment needed). Students then compare and discuss their different plans.

18. Debates. Working in groups, all students discuss and write down arguments for or against a particular topic or motion suggested by the teacher or the class. Then one student from each group is selected to debate the issue.

Debates are most appropriate for students in the Senior Division. Topics should be of interest to all so that every student has something to say.

19. Class Newspaper/Radio Station. The class produces a newspaper to be printed and distributed in the class, the school, or the community. Alternatively, a radio broadcast can be organized and taped. These projects will involve both individual and group work.

20. Games. Commercially produced games or games generated by the teacher are played in the Native language. When a game does not involve much speaking, students are asked to describe aloud what they are doing. One student can also explain the rules of the game to the others in the Native language.

Interpreting information

1. Connections. Working in groups, students are given lists, photographs, or collections of incongruous items: objects, ideas, people, animals, and so on. Each group must think of as many connections between the items as possible. These can be fanciful as well as sensible. After recording their ideas, the groups compare their lists with one another.

In a variation of this activity, students are given a list of five to fifteen items. Working in groups, they write a story incorporating all of the items on the list.

2. Descriptions. Pairs or groups of students are given photographs of individuals they do not know. Within a time limit (e.g., five minutes), students guess and write down various things about the person (e.g., age, profession, likes, dislikes, nationality). Students must explain their deductions. Students then rotate their photographs until each group has seen them all. To conclude the activity, students read their descriptions, and the teacher, who may or may not know the individuals, discusses the students' interpretations with them.

3. Story Interpretation. Working in groups, students are given either a picture or a printed passage that involves a mysterious situation or event. Each group must create a story to explain what is depicted in the scene. Detective or science-fiction stories are good sources of settings for this activity. Once they have written down their stories, the groups relate them to the rest of the class.

4. What If ...? Working in groups, students discuss the consequences of extraordinary events (e.g., if white people turned green ...; if everyone forgot how to speak English ...; if hunting were banned ...). Students can themselves compile lists of these "what if" situations for discussion. Having discussed and recorded their thoughts, students then present them to the class as a whole.

5. What's Happening? Working in groups, students read or listen to a dialogue between two people. These dialogues can be written by the teacher or taken from published or recorded drama. Each group describes a possible context for the conversation: who the characters are and what their relationship is; where they are; what they are talking about; what they are feeling; and so on. The groups then compare and discuss their observations. As an extension the groups can role-play the dialogue and extend the conversation further.

6. Headlines. Working in pairs or groups, students are given one newspaper-type headline. The teacher can invent this or take it from a newspaper, and the headline can be serious or silly, clear or ambiguous. Students then invent a story to accompany the headline. After recording their stories, the groups compare them.

7. What Are They Saying? Working in pairs or groups, students are given single pictures or cartoon or story strips with blank speech balloons. They then supply appropriate words for the balloons within a specific time limit. When they have done this, the groups share and discuss their responses.

8. Comprehension Exercises. Students can work together in pairs or groups on exercises that they would normally do on their own. Comprehension questions with multiple-choice answers can be provided, for example. Several of the answers given for each question can be correct, so that students will have to discuss which answer is the best.

Role playing

Role playing can be used with students of all ages and at all levels of proficiency. Even young children enjoy and benefit from acting out visits to the store or to a movie.

The context of each role-playing activity should be explained to students in advance. In general, role playing should be based on ordinary situations familiar to students in their everyday lives (e.g., asking a friend to go somewhere, refusing an invitation).

Teachers need to be sensitive to personality differences among their students when introducing role-playing activities. Some students, particularly older ones, do not like role playing and should not be forced to take part. Once the activity has begun, they may feel less threatened and may join in.

Of all the communicative activities, role playing is perhaps the best vehicle for instruction and practice in appropriate forms of expression for specific situations. Students must learn when and how to interrupt, when to be silent, when and how to speak with a formal voice, and so forth; these conventions, along with gesture, are as much a part of speaking a language well as are correct vocabulary and grammatical form. Role playing allows students to experiment with different forms of expression and to choose appropriate styles of speech to suit different speakers and different contexts.

1. Simple Role Playing. Role playing requires confidence. Teachers can build this confidence by providing role cards, which contain instructions for either one role or both, as in the example below. Students then act the parts outlined on the cards:

A: Greets B.
B: Greets A.
A: Suggests going somewhere the next day.
B: Refuses and gives a reason; suggests another place.
A: Agrees. Suggests time and place for meeting.
B: Agrees. Says goodbye.
A: Says goodbye.

Teachers can vary this activity by giving students only the first part of a dialogue. Students may improvise on the spot or may be given time to work out a conclusion for the dialogue.

2. Dialogue Writing. Working in pairs, students write and perform dialogues for people or puppets or take a familiar legend or story and write it in dramatic form. They can then perform their plays for the class.

Games

Introduction

Games are particularly suitable for children in the Primary Division, although they can also be used with older students. Teachers will already be familiar with many of the games described below, although perhaps not in the context of language instruction, as recommended here. They may wish to keep a file or record of the games that they have used successfully in the classroom. In addition to the games discussed below, teachers can, of course, draw on their own experience, on that of other teachers, and on material cited in the resources section of this document.

Students can play games in groups or as a class. In many games a student can act as leader once the game is familiar. Unlike communicative activities, most of these games do not involve extensive communication. They do, however, require students to understand instructions, which is an important listening skill.

Types of Games

1. Bingo. Teachers and students can prepare special bingo cards with eight or twelve large squares. These squares may contain numbers or, more commonly, pictures of objects, animals, or events.[5] All of the cards should be different.

To play the game, the teacher or leader calls out the name of an object, animal, or event. Students can repeat the words after the teacher. If necessary, the teacher can show the picture as he or she names the object. If the students have that picture on their card, they mark it with regular bingo or custom-made cardboard markers. The teacher can decide what constitutes a winning card: any five squares, one vertical line, and so on. The first student who covers the required number of squares shouts "bingo". Winners can be asked to name the items in their winning combinations.

Verb-O is a commercially produced variant of Bingo, using only verbs.

2. Run and Find. This game is also known as Bring Me or Find It. The teacher divides the students into two teams. Objects or pictures are placed on a table. Team members form two lines leading away from the table. The teacher or leader and one member of each team stand at a distance. The leader says "Bring me a bicycle", for example, and the two children run through the lines to the table and bring back a picture of a bicycle. (There may be two examples of every object or picture, so that each student can bring one back.) Teachers can also command students to move in a particular way: to hop or crawl, for example, instead of running.

A variation of this game is called Touch It. Objects and pictures are placed in the middle of a group. As an object or person is named, students must touch the correct item.

3. Beanbag. The teacher places approximately ten pictures of objects, people, or events on the floor or on a table. Students name their targets and take turns tossing bean bags or other small objects at them. Targets should be

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5. Pictures can be taken from Andrew Wright's 1000 Pictures for Teachers to Copy (Don Mills, Ont.: Addison-Wesley; London: Collins ELT, 1984).

placed so that they are not difficult to hit. Students score a point for hitting a target or for naming it correctly.

4. Gather Round. Objects or pictures are placed on the floor as far apart as possible. The teacher calls out the name of an item, and students run, skip, or jump (according to the instructions given) to the item and stand around it. Teachers may draw a circle around each object or picture and require students to gather within the circles.

5. What's Missing? The teacher selects five to eight items or pictures and puts them on a table or on the floor. Students must be familiar with the Native-language names for the items chosen. They close their eyes while the teacher removes one of the pictures or objects. When they open their eyes, the teacher asks them what is missing.

6. Concentration. Between twenty and thirty picture cards are laid out face up. Picture cards can be commercially produced or made by the teacher or students. (Pictures can be pasted on regular playing cards or small blank file cards.) There should be two of each card (e.g., two cats, two beavers). These pairs should be separated from one another. All cards are then turned face down, and the first player picks a card. He or she turns it over, gives the name of the item in the picture (with help, if necessary, from the class), and turns over a second card. If this matches the first card, the player keeps the matched pair and repeats the process. If the cards do not match, the next student takes a turn. The game continues until all pairs are matched. The player with the most cards is the winner.

7. Fish. A deck of picture cards is required for this game. Picture cards can be commercially produced or made by the teacher or students. (Pictures can be pasted on regular playing cards or small blank file cards.) In the traditional game there are thirteen sets of four matching cards, totalling fifty-two, but ten sets of pairs (twenty cards altogether) can also be used.

Two to four students are each dealt four to seven cards face down. The remaining cards become the "pile". With the aim of collecting pairs, the first player asks the other player or players for a certain card that will match one in his or her hand. For example, if the player has a beaver card, he or she can request a beaver. If the other players have the card, they must give it over, and the player takes another turn. If the other players do not

have the card, they say "fish", the first player takes a card from the pile, and the next player takes a turn. Pairs are laid aside face up.

The game is over when one player has all of his or her cards laid down in pairs, or when the pile is gone. The winner is the player who has the most pairs, or the one who first lays down all his or her cards.

8. Knock, Knock. One child is blindfolded or turns to face the wall. Another, chosen by the teacher, taps the first lightly on the back and says "Guess who?". (Students may disguise their voices.) The blindfolded student has three chances to guess the other's identity, perhaps with hints from the teacher after one incorrect guess. All students take turns being blindfolded.

In a variation of this game, students can draw the initial of their first name with their finger on the blindfolded student's back.

9. Simon Says. The teacher issues a series of commands, with or without actions, as preferred. Students perform only those actions preceded by the words "Simon says". If the teacher says "Touch your nose", students should not move. If the teacher says "Simon says touch your nose", they should do so. In the traditional game those who make mistakes drop out. For maximum language practice, however, all students should continue to participate throughout.

In True and False (also called Silly Sentences), a game similar to Simon Says, the teacher makes a series of statements; students do not react to true or sensible statements, but false or silly statements must be signalled in some way.

10. Line-O. The teacher draws a line or lays a rope on the floor. Each side of the line is associated with a certain category of object, food on one side, for example, and vehicles on the other. A representative picture of each category can be placed on each side of the line.

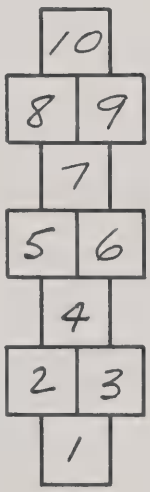
Students line up along one side of the line, and when the teacher calls out words, they must either stay where they are or cross the line, as appropriate. If they are standing on the food side, for example, and the teacher says "apple", they must not move. If the teacher says "snowmobile", they must step or jump across the line to the vehicle side. As in Simon Says, students who make mistakes should stay in the game.

11. Guessing Games. In Guess That Object the teacher gives students clues, and they must guess the identity of an object. The teacher might say, for example, "We use it in the winter. It goes fast. It has skis on it." The correct answer (a snowmobile) must be given before the teacher proceeds to the next object.

In I Spy, another guessing game, descriptive clues leading to, for example, the answer "chalkboard" ("I spy with my little eye something big, green, and flat") give more language practice than the traditional version ("I spy with my little eye something beginning with c").

12. Follow the Leader. Students follow a leader in a line and imitate the leader's actions: hopping, jumping, making faces, and so on. The leader describes the actions aloud (e.g., "I am hopping"). The rest of the class can reply "We are hopping" for further language practice.

13. Hopscotch. With chalk or masking tape, the teacher marks out hopscotch squares on the floor. (Other arrangements of the ten squares besides that shown below can also be used.)



The game is played in the traditional way, with small objects, such as stones, used as markers. As players throw their markers into the different squares, they must call out the name of the number in the square.

14. Board Games. Many commercially produced board games can be adapted for the purposes of language practice.[6] Teachers can also make their own boards of twenty numbered squares with pictures. As students roll the dice and move from square to square, they must identify or describe the pictures in the squares they land on, or go back two squares.

Songs, Chants, Rhymes, and Fingerplays

Introduction

Although this section focuses primarily on songs, many of the principles outlined also apply to chants, rhymes, and fingerplays.

Songs should be included in Native-language programs for students of all ages and all levels of proficiency. Songs should be integrated into language lessons and not used simply to fill time before the end of class. Singing is a pleasurable activity that relaxes students and makes them more likely to retain what they are learning. Students should be encouraged to request their favourite songs during singing activities.

To introduce a new song to students, teachers may simply sing it to them, perhaps at a slightly slower pace than normal, and perform any actions that go with the song. Students may begin to join in at once, especially when the teacher repeats the song (perhaps once or twice more). On each of the next two days, the teacher should sing the song again several times, increasing the pace to normal speed. Students should then know the song, unless it is exceptionally complex. Alternatively, teachers may wish to use a response approach, having students repeat each line after the teacher has sung the lines one at a time.

The teacher should vary the ways in which songs are performed in class. Students can be divided into groups, for example, with each group singing different lines or verses. Students can also provide some form of accompaniment, such as clapping or beating drums. They can also accompany a song with appropriate noises; a song about a cat, for example, can be sung with some students singing

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6. A First Book of Board Games by Donn Byrne (Montreal: CEC, 1980) offers suggestions for and explanations of various suitable games.

"meow, meow" to the beat of the song. Teachers can provide further variety by asking students to sing different verses in different ways: shouting or whispering, slow or fast, and so on.

Singing songs provides practice in pronunciation, intonation, and language rhythms. Songs can also be used to reinforce grammatical patterns, although they are most effective when accompanied by actions devised to match the words of the songs. The question-and-answer song "Who's in the Circle?", for example, should be sung by students in a circle. As they sing an answer, (e.g., "Sarah's in the circle"), the student of that name should move to the centre.

Songs can also be used to teach vocabulary, especially songs such as "Old Macdonald Had a Farm", which can be supported by appropriate pictures. This type of song can be adapted to other contexts: "Uncle Abel Has a House", for example, to the same tune as "Old Macdonald", can be used to practise the names of household items (such as a kettle and a broom) and the sounds they produce. Most songs can be adapted in this way for Native-language teaching.

The following English example uses the tune of "The Farmer in the Dell" to provide vocabulary and language-pattern practice.

We're walking round the room,
We're walking round the room,
Come on and walk with us,
We're walking round the room.

I went to the store,
I went to the store,
I got some milk, I got some chips,
I went to the store.

Where is my hat?
Where is my hat?
Did you take it? Did you take it?
Where is my hat?

She's so hot that she could melt,
She's so hot that she could melt,
Everybody blow on her,
She's so hot that she could melt.

Go up the stairs,
Go up the stairs,
Now you're at the top of them,
Go down the stairs.

I'm not well at all,
I'm not well at all,
I don't want to do that work,
I'm not well at all.

Although songs generally emphasize speaking and listening skills, they can also be used to reinforce reading and writing skills. Beginning students can read songs they already know. More advanced students can learn songs by reading them. Verses of songs such as "Where Have All the Flowers Gone" can be used for sequencing activities. Students can write new verses for a song, or they can fill in blanks left in printed song texts with the correct word or an equally appropriate one.

In addition to using songs for specific language practice, teachers can present a theme through songs and can build units around them.

Types of Songs, Chants, Rhymes, and Fingerplays

Songs, chants, and rhymes of many types can be used in the classroom for language practice. English and French song titles are mentioned below as illustrations of the different song types, not necessarily as examples suitable for the Native-language classroom. Where possible, teachers should use Native songs popular in their communities.

1. Cumulative Songs. These songs are developed by adding successive verses to preceding ones and repeating the pattern indefinitely (e.g., "The House That Jack Built").

2. Story Songs and Rhymes. These songs tell a story. They can be short (e.g., "Jack and Jill Went up the Hill") or long (e.g., "The Bear Went Over the Mountain").

3. Repetitive Songs. These repeat lines or verses (e.g., "Frère Jacques").

4. Action Songs and Fingerplays. Action songs and fingerplays are great fun for children and can work well with students of all ages. In action songs, actions are gradually substituted for some of the words (e.g., "John Brown's Body") or must be performed while the song is being

sung (e.g., "Hokey Pokey"). In fingerplays, students hold up their fingers to represent a person or thing while singing.

5. Echo Songs. These songs are sung by students divided into groups. One group echoes all or part of what another group has sung (e.g., "Down by the Bay").

6. Question-and-Answer Songs. In these songs, one part is sung by an individual or group, which asks a question, and another individual or group sings the reply (e.g., "There's a Hole in My Bucket").

7. Popular Songs. Popular songs from the hit parade can be sung by older students.

TEACHING GRAMMAR

Basic Considerations

Languages reflect the culture and philosophy of the people who speak them. Grammar, which is the framework of language, reveals the way in which each language defines the relationships between concepts. An understanding of these relationships enhances a speaker's ability to formulate ideas, to communicate, and to understand.

The learning of grammar can be a productive and enjoyable activity for students. A knowledge of the structure of a language can allow students to analyse and reflect on its use, thereby stimulating their interest in language itself, deepening their understanding of the language being learned, and helping them to develop their writing skills and to analyse the writing of others.

Most teachers would agree that they themselves require some explicit knowledge of grammar in order to answer their students' questions about language patterns. However, there is currently no agreement on whether instruction in grammar helps students learn a language or improves their ability to communicate. Many teachers and students nevertheless consider an awareness of grammar to be a valuable component of language learning.

Teachers who opt for an approach that does not include instruction in formal grammar with beginning students can introduce grammatical concepts such as noun, pronoun, and verb (in English or in the Native language) as early as the Junior Division. These terms provide a vocabulary for students' discussion of written pieces - both their own and those of others. Some teachers begin explicit grammar instruction in Grade 6 with students who have reached a basic level of proficiency.

At this level and beyond, grammatical questions may come up in class in the course of language activities with a non-grammatical objective. Teachers can answer these questions with brief explanations as they arise, or they can postpone them until a later time (especially if the grammatical point is one they need to check). These incidental explanations are quite different from the sample grammar lessons outlined below, which offer explicit and detailed instruction on a particular point. Teachers using an explicitly grammatical approach to language teaching will obviously make the most use of such lessons, while

teachers employing all approaches can consider incorporating lessons such as these into their programs. At no level is it necessary for students to memorize rules of grammar.

Teachers using a grammatical approach will generally progress from the simplest to the more complex grammatical points. Students' needs, however, should determine what is taught. A language pattern with a complex grammatical explanation, for example, may be a common and therefore essential form for students to learn at an early stage. In such cases the form can be taught to beginning students, and the grammatical explanation can be postponed. Exceptions to rules can perhaps not be mentioned until they arise naturally.

Before teaching any point of grammar or language pattern, teachers should research it in reference books or check with local language experts or Native-language speakers. Where suitable reference tools or language specialists are not available, teachers must themselves analyse the uses of the grammatical point to the best of their ability. Parts B and C of the Native languages guideline deal in detail with the language patterns of five Ontario Native languages.

Sample Lessons

The Present Progressive

This sample lesson has five stages, which can at times be combined or reordered. It illustrates a lesson on the present progressive tense (also called the present continuous), found in Iroquoian languages. The present progressive expresses an action taking place at the time of speaking (e.g., "I am speaking"). It can also refer to an anticipated action in the future (e.g., I am moving to Sudbury next month"). This sample lesson deals only with the first use of the present progressive.

The lesson is presented with English examples, which teachers can adapt to the particular Iroquoian language they are teaching.

Stage 1: Presentation/Introduction

Teachers should vary the means they use to introduce grammatical points and language patterns. The following are some suggested approaches for the initial presentation of the present progressive form:

- The teacher can illustrate the idea through actions (e.g., by walking around the classroom and saying "I am walking").

- The teacher can ask questions that require an answer in the present progressive tense. For example, the teacher can hold up a picture and say "What is the girl doing? She is making bannock."

- The teacher can introduce the form and explain its use: "Today we will look at the present progressive tense, which you can use to tell someone what you are doing right now."

- A form in the present progressive can be written on the board and contrasted with the simple present (e.g., "I am writing on the chalkboard" and "I write on the chalkboard every day"). Students can be asked to define the difference in the meaning of the two sentences.

- If the teacher has planned a lesson in the present progressive because students have used the form incorrectly in a communicative activity or a writing exercise, he or she can begin the grammar lesson by reminding students of that incorrect use and introducing the correct form.

- The teacher can read a story that students know well (or a short written text), converting all the tenses to present progressives.

- Students who are already familiar with the form and who have learned to use it in speaking before meeting it in a grammar class can be given written stories or dialogues containing examples of the form. The stories or dialogues must be well within students' range of comprehension. These students can also play a grammar game in which teams are given sentences that contain verbs in different tenses and must identify those in the present progressive.

Stage 2: Identification

If the formal name of the present progressive has not been taught in stage 1, it should be introduced to students at this stage. They can be asked to identify further examples in a written text or to give examples orally. The teacher can then ask students if they can see how the pattern is formed and can write it on the chalkboard: subject + present forms of the verb to be + present participle (ending in -ing). Each element in the combination should be identified and explained, including contractions in the verb forms (I am → I'm).

Stage 3: Application

At this stage the use of the present progressive to express continuous action in the present should be explained. Other uses can be mentioned but not discussed. The explanation should be kept as simple as possible.

Stage 4: Practice

This stage will occupy the largest proportion of class time. With beginning students, teachers can start with meaningful drills and proceed to communicative drills and communicative activities. (See the "Language Drills" and "Communicative Activities" sections of this document for a general analysis and representative sample of these activities.) With students who have some proficiency in the language but who use the present progressive incorrectly, teachers can begin with communicative drills. With students who already use the tense correctly most of the time, teachers can proceed directly with communicative activities.

Meaningful Drills. Meaningful drills can include substitution drills, such as the following, with pictures or actions accompanying the speaking of the words:

Teacher: I'm walking.
Students: I'm walking.
Teacher: The dog.
Students: The dog is walking.
Teacher: Run.
Students: The dog is running.

Communicative Drills. Individual students or groups can mime activities, and the others must guess what they are doing. This can take the form of chain drills:

Student 1 (miming):	What am I doing?
Student 2:	You're sewing.
Student 2 (miming):	What am I doing?
Student 3:	You're playing a guitar.

Student 3 then mimes something, and the chain continues until all the students have had a turn.

Communicative Activities. One communicative activity involves dividing students into pairs and giving each student a set of pictures of people or animals engaged in some kind of activity. The paired students must have the same pictures. The first student, keeping the pictures hidden, arranges them in a particular order. He or she then tells the second student how to line up his or her pictures to match (e.g., "The first is a girl; she's sleeping"). Both students should be encouraged to talk in order to clarify the instructions and make comments. If the teacher can hear that students are having problems with the present progressive, he or she should plan to provide them with further practice.

Another communicative activity involves dividing the class into two teams. Each team constructs sentences containing the present progressive and must judge whether the other team's sentences are correct. The teams may, of course, deliberately construct incorrect sentences.

Stage 5: Follow-up

Follow-up can involve homework or work in later classes. Teachers whose programs employ an explicitly grammatical approach will give their students more practice than will others and will extend their activities to reading and writing in addition to the more common activities that involve only speaking and listening. Traditional written exercises such as the following require students to complete isolated sentences using the correct form of a given word:

He _____ to the store. (walk)
We _____ apples. (eat)

Activities that are more meaningful than this can be devised, however. For example, for a homework assignment students can be asked to write down what everyone at home

is doing at 5:00 p.m., 6:00 p.m., and 7:00 p.m. that evening. For an assignment in class, students can describe what five of their classmates are doing at that moment, or they can draw pictures of their classmates and describe their actions.

Teachers emphasizing the grammatical approach will want to review the present progressive periodically.

First-Person Plural Personal Pronouns

This sample lesson has five stages, which can at times be combined or reordered. It illustrates the two first-person plural personal pronouns - the inclusive and exclusive - found in Algonquian and Iroquoian languages.

Stage 1: Presentation/Introduction

Teachers should vary the means they use to introduce grammatical points and language patterns. The following are some suggested approaches for the initial presentation of the first-person plural and of the distinction between the inclusive and exclusive.

- The teacher can illustrate the inclusive form through actions (e.g., by walking around the classroom with a student and saying "We are walking").

- The teacher can ask questions that require an answer. For example, the teacher can ask the student with whom he or she is walking, "What are we doing?", and the student answers, "We are walking".

- The teacher can introduce the exclusive form by taking one student aside; this student becomes the listener. The teacher walks around with the other students, saying "We are walking" to the listener, using the exclusive form. To illustrate the difference between exclusive and inclusive, the listener is brought back into the group, and "We are walking" is repeated, but now in the inclusive form.

- The teacher can distribute large sheets of coloured newsprint and cans of black and white paint, and ask such questions as "What are we doing?" and "Are we painting?", which the students must answer. Teachers can also give students practice in other personal pronouns (e.g., "Are they painting?", "She is painting").

- Using a washtub, the teacher can demonstrate the possessive forms of all the personal pronouns ("I'm washing my shirt; I'm washing your shirt; I'm washing his shirt," etc.). The process can be repeated using other articles.

- The teacher can provide students with copies of a story or short written text with the first-person plural personal pronouns omitted. As the teacher reads the story to the students, they fill in the inclusive or exclusive forms, as appropriate.

- Students who are already familiar with the inclusive and exclusive plurals and who have learned to use them in speaking before meeting them in a grammar class can be given written stories or dialogues containing underlined examples of the forms. The stories or dialogues must be well within the students' range of comprehension.

Stage 2: Identification

If the formal names of the two plural forms have not been taught in stage 1, they should be introduced at this stage. Students can be asked to identify further examples in a written text or to give examples orally. The teacher can then ask students to identify the morpheme that indicates the plural in each form and write it on the chalkboard.

Stage 3: Application

At this stage the explanation of the difference between inclusive and exclusive plural forms, introduced in stage 1, should be repeated. The explanation should be kept as simple as possible.

Stage 4: Practice

This stage will occupy the largest proportion of class time. With beginning students, teachers can start with meaningful drills. With students who have some proficiency in the language but who use the plural forms incorrectly, teachers can begin with communicative drills. With students who already use the forms correctly most of the time, teachers can proceed directly with communicative activities. (See the "Language Drills" and "Communicative Activities" sections of this document for a general analysis and representative sample of these activities.)

Meaningful Drills. Meaningful drills can include substitution drills such as the following, with pictures or actions accompanying the speaking of the words:

Teacher: We are walking (exclusive).
Students: We are walking.
Teacher: We are walking (inclusive).
Students: We are walking.
Teacher: We are running (exclusive).
Students: We are running.
Teacher: We are running (inclusive).
Students: We are running.

Communicative Drills. Individual students or groups can perform mimes, and the others must guess what they are portraying. This activity can take the form of a chain drill on the inclusive plural, with the teacher as an observer.

Student 1 (miming): What are we doing?
Students: We are sewing.
Student 2 (miming): What are we doing?
Students: We are playing the radio.

The chain continues until all the students have had a turn asking a question.

Communicative Activities. In one type of communicative activity, the teacher can have the class bring their outdoor clothing from the cloakroom. Students put on and take off the various articles as requested by the teacher, describing their actions as they do so (e.g., "We are putting on our coats"). In doing this activity, which is an excellent illustration of the concept of the exclusive first-person plural, students should be encouraged to clarify the difference between the exclusive and the inclusive.

In another type of communicative activity, one that illustrates the use of the inclusive form, two students can dramatize a laundry day, describing their actions to each other as they do them (e.g., "We are washing socks", "We are hanging up shirts").

If the teacher can hear that students are having problems distinguishing between the exclusive and inclusive forms, he or she should plan to provide them with further practice.

Stage 5: Follow-up

Follow-up can involve homework or work in later classes. Teachers whose programs employ an explicitly grammatical approach will give their students more practice than will others, and will extend their activities to reading and writing in addition to the more common activities that involve only speaking and listening. Traditional written exercises such as the following require students to complete isolated sentences using the correct form:

---------- to the store. (walk) (first-person inclusive plural)
---------- apples. (eat) (first-person exclusive plural)

Activities that are more meaningful than this can be devised, however. For example, for a homework assignment students can be asked to write down what they and other family members were doing together at 5.00 p.m., 6.00 p.m., and 7.00 p.m. that evening. For an assignment in class, students can describe what they and their classmates are doing at that moment, or they can draw pictures and describe their actions.

Teachers emphasizing the grammatical approach will want to review the forms periodically.

DEVELOPING A THEME

Introduction

Building lessons around themes is one of the most productive ways of teaching, because themes form a natural focus for the development of ideas and activities. Themes can range from broad topics, such as food, animals, or means of transportation, to specific subjects or subthemes, such as bannock, wolves, or snowmobiles.

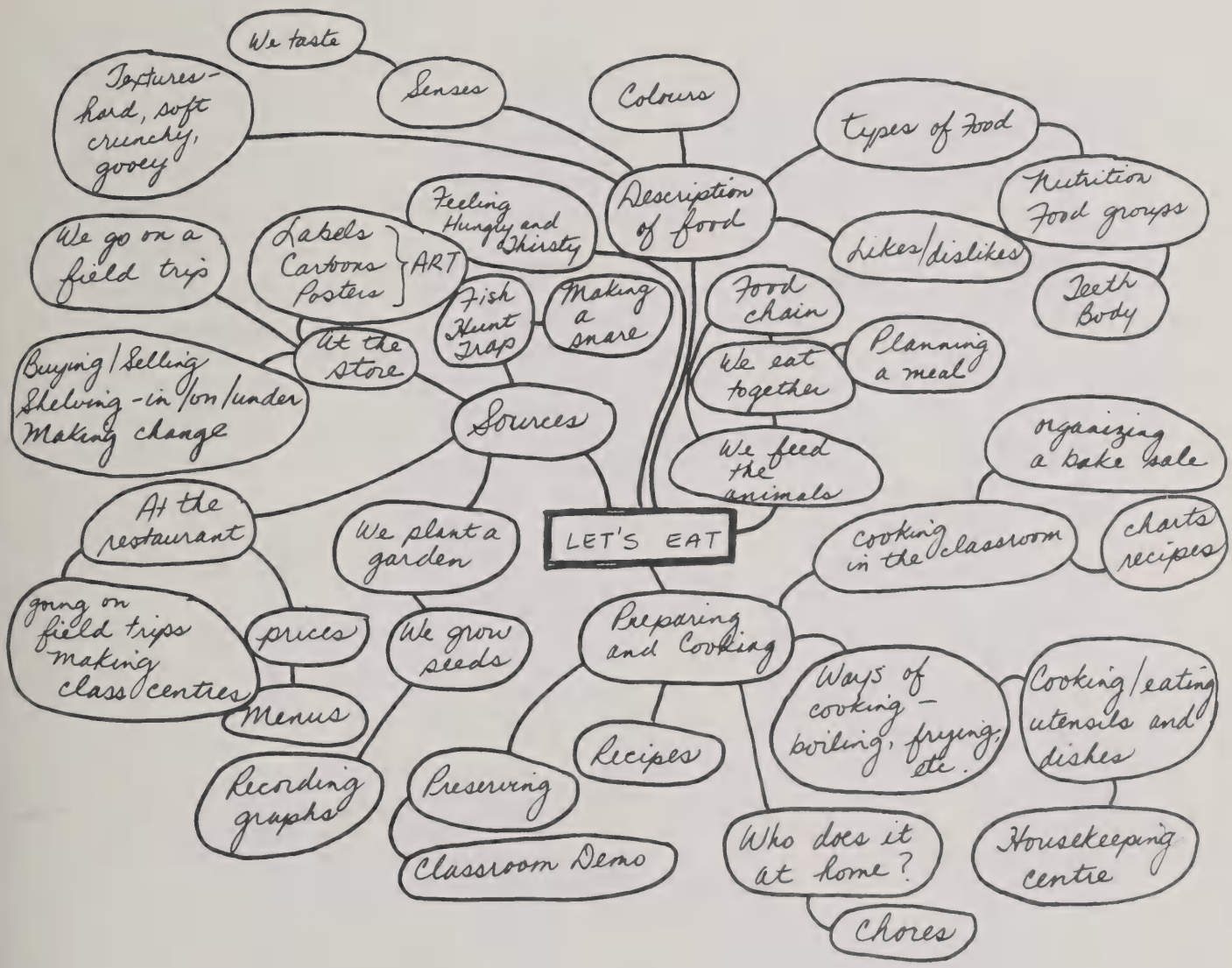


Figure 1: Topic Web Chart

Figure 1 illustrates the theme of food and eating divided into topics for a Primary class. The teacher has put down as many subthemes as he or she could think of and has included ideas for classroom activities. Obviously, no two web charts will be alike.

In figure 2, the theme of food and eating is divided into subject areas. This chart may be more suitable for Senior Division teachers, although teachers must use whatever form suits them best.

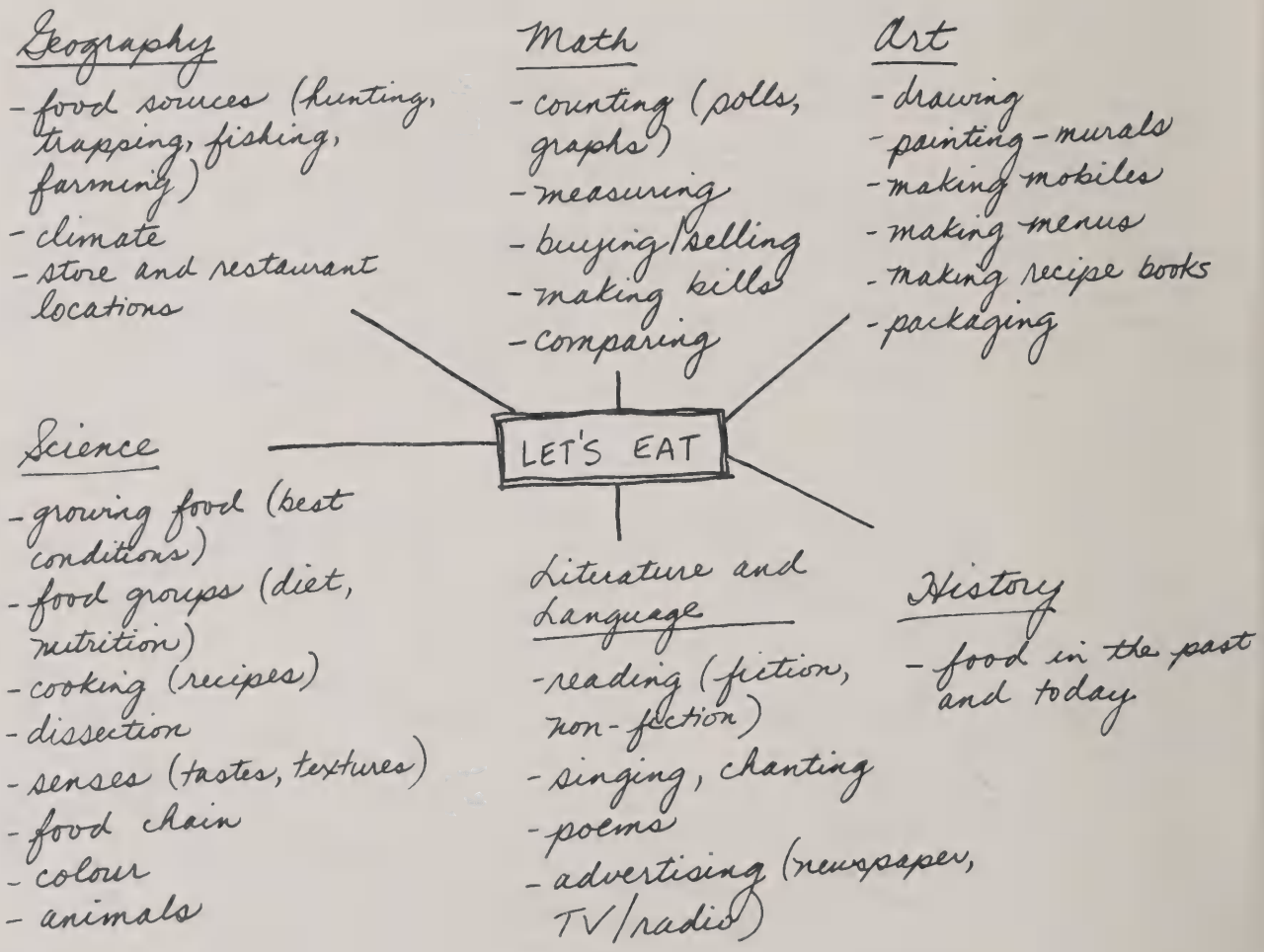


Figure 2: Subject Area Web Chart

Once there are enough ideas on the chart, the teacher can choose which of the many possible subthemes to use. Ideas that can be linked to one another are the most effective, as they give the unit continuity. A Primary teacher working from figure 1, for example, might construct the following plan for a three-week period: the introduction of the names for twenty to thirty local items of food and drink; the names of two or three things that animals eat but humans do not; students' likes and dislikes; a field trip to a store to buy some ingredients for favourite foods; and a classroom cooking activity, perhaps with a recipe in pictures.

As the next step the teacher can make a list of possible activities and particular aspects of language (vocabulary and language patterns) that would be a suitable focus for a lesson, taking into account the age and level of proficiency of the class. Other lists - of relevant books in the school library and appropriate songs and fingerplays - can also be made.

Alternatively, the teacher might plan the lesson from another angle. He or she might begin by listing language functions connected with the theme of food (e.g., describing food, expressing likes and dislikes). The vocabulary and language patterns required to perform these functions could then be listed, and the activities chosen. These might be the same as those planned by the first teacher. In both cases the lesson plans could be arranged as illustrated in table 3. Charts such as these can be used by teachers as a guide in planning large-group and small-group activities and learning centres.

Sample Unit

This section provides teachers with a two-week sample unit on clothing for Grade 1 students. It assumes daily twenty-minute classes. Teachers are reminded that, like other examples in this resource guide, the sample lessons were designed for English-as-a-second-language instruction and must be adapted for Native-language classes. Since the legends and songs to be used in lessons should be in the Native language, teachers may have to make their own translations.

Teachers should use all the activities recommended for each lesson. Activities should be done in the order in which they are given in the model. If students have less than twenty minutes a day of Native-language instruction, or for some other reason teachers cannot carry out all the

Table 3: Sample Lesson Plans

Activities	Vocabulary	Language Patterns	Language Functions	Legends and Stories	Songs, Chants, and Fingerplays
Sampling of real foods (taste, smell, touch, eat, drink) Discussion of what we eat and drink Discussion of what rabbits, wolves, and caribou eat	-Nouns: apples, oranges, bananas, cookies, bread, hamburgers, moose meat, fish, cheese, potatoes, milk, tea, pop	-It's (a) _____. -Have some _____. -We eat/drink _____. -Rabbits eat _____.	-Describing food; -Offering food; -Accepting food	"The Shut Eye Dance" "The Seven Stars"	"Who Likes _____
Discussion of likes and dislikes	-Verbs: eat, drink, taste, chew, give, cook, boil	-I (don't) like _____; He/she likes _____; He/she doesn't like _____.	-Expressing likes and dislikes		
Trip to store; classroom store Cooking (writing recipes, playing house)	-Particles -Prepositions: on shelf, in the bag	-I want _____.	-Asking for something		

activities suggested in the sample unit, one or two of the recommended language patterns should be omitted, and the activities in which students communicate with one another should be emphasized. If teachers have more than twenty minutes a day and have time for more activities, they should consult the Native languages guideline for further examples.

This sample unit assumes that students are already familiar with the words for colours and parts of the body, demonstrative forms (e.g., "This is a hat"; "There are the shoes"), and forms of the verb to have. The following words are to be introduced in this unit: shirt, pants/jeans, dress, sock, shoe, boot, moccasin, hat, scarf, coat, sweater, and mitten. The language patterns to be learned include the present forms of the verbs to wear (e.g., "I'm wearing trousers"), to put on, and to take off, and constructions such as Whose coat is this? It's Peter's.

Before the first lesson teachers should collect items of clothing of the sort worn by their students. Having more than one item of each kind of clothing or footwear will help students understand, for example, that shirts with short sleeves and those with long sleeves have the same name. It is recommended that the clothing collected be in large sizes, so that children can put it on over their own clothing.

Lesson 1

a) The class sings one or two songs that the children already know.

b) To introduce clothing vocabulary, the teacher puts five of the items of clothing he or she has collected into a bag and pulls them out one at a time, providing a basic definition of each (e.g., "This is a sweater"). The teacher should describe the item further in simple terms, perhaps referring to comparable items that students are wearing (e.g., "This sweater is red"; "Sandra is wearing a sweater"; "Sandra's sweater is blue"). Students should be encouraged to repeat the names of the items introduced.

Teachers need not limit themselves to vocabulary or forms with which the children are familiar. Actions and repetitions can help get the meaning of new words across. Thus, it is not necessary for teachers to resort to the students' first language if they do not understand.

After all the items have been introduced and displayed (on a makeshift clothesline or a table), the teacher should repeat their names, encouraging students to join in.

c) The class is divided into two groups and plays the game Touch It. The two groups form circles, with items of clothing (or children wearing them) in the centre. When the teacher says "Touch the sweater", students touch the correct item. The teacher can reinforce the vocabulary by touching the item and repeating its name. A student can take over from the teacher as leader once the vocabulary is understood.

Lesson 2

a) Students are taught a song that includes words for clothing, using the items introduced in the previous lesson, perhaps with a few additions. "My Boots Go on My Feet", sung to the tune of "The Farmer in the Dell", is one example:

> My boots go on my feet,
> My boots go on my feet,
> That's where they always go,
> My boots go on my feet.

Many more verses (e.g., "My hat goes on my head", "My scarf goes round my neck") can be sung. Students can pretend to put on the clothing mentioned as they sing each verse.

b) Students are taught the present progressive forms of the verb to wear. Teachers can introduce the language pattern by saying what they or their students are wearing (e.g., "I'm wearing a sweater; Tommy's wearing a shirt") while touching the item. The children join in in chorus and then take over as the teacher silently continues to touch items, which the students identify aloud. At first some students will use only the word for the item itself, but eventually they will use the complete form (e.g., "John is wearing shoes").

c) Students play a hiding game. One child is sent out of sight while the others try to remember and to describe his or her clothing. Sometimes the simple vocabulary is enough, although the answers required can be more complex, depending on the students' level of proficiency. The teacher can extend the answers (e.g., "Donna says Barry is wearing a shirt"). The child returns, the descriptions are compared with his or her actual clothing, and the process is repeated.

Lesson 3

a) The class sings two songs, including the one from the previous lesson.

b) The vocabulary and language patterns are reviewed through one of the following activities:

- Students describe the clothing of people in pictures they are shown.

- Students play the hiding game again.

- Students dress up in the selected items, and the rest of the class describes what they are wearing.

A few more items of clothing may be introduced in these activities.

c) The class forms a circle (or circles, if the class is large) for a chain drill. The teacher begins the chain (e.g., "I'm wearing a sweater") and asks a student "What are you wearing?". The student replies (e.g., "I'm wearing a shirt") and repeats the question to another child. This pattern continues until the question has gone around the circle. Students will need help with the question at first.

d) Using actual items of clothing or photographs, the teacher talks about clothing that students' parents wore as children, or local clothing that is still worn (e.g., moccasins, mukluks, or hats or coats of rabbit fur). The materials of the clothing and its decoration, such as beadwork, can be pointed out. By pointing to and exhibiting the objects, teachers can make sure that students understand what they are saying.

Lesson 4

a) The class sings one or two songs.

b) The teacher reads a pattern booklet to the class, using the form he/she is wearing. (For pattern booklets, see page 84.) The written text need not be included. If a tape recorder is available, teachers can tape examples of the form.

c) The vocabulary and language patterns are reviewed through the use of a figure on a flannel board that students "dress" with items as they are named by the teacher.

d) The class is divided into two groups. One works with the flannel board; the other dresses up in the items of clothing, putting them on as the teacher or a student names them. Students should be encouraged to describe what they or the flannel figure are wearing.

Lesson 5

a) The class sings one or two songs, and the teacher tells or reads a story or a legend that involves clothing.

b) Students perform one of the following activities:

- They make booklets by cutting pictures of clothing from magazines or catalogues, or by drawing the clothing themselves. Pictures can be pasted into four-page or eight-page booklets provided by the teacher.

- They are given a figure and some construction paper and asked to design and cut out various clothing items, which can then be pasted onto the figure.

Once students have made their booklets or completed their figures, they can describe them to one another.

Lesson 6

a) The teacher teaches another song involving clothing, incorporating the children's names into a familiar tune. Rewritten verses of "Here We Go Round the Mulberry Bush", for example, might begin:

> Jerry's wearing a blue shirt,
> A blue shirt, a blue shirt,
> Jerry's wearing a blue shirt,
> Jerry walks around.

b) The class examines and discusses the artwork produced in lesson 5. Students describe what the figures are wearing.

c) Students play Back to Back (see page 22).

d) The teacher introduces the forms for putting on and taking off clothing. He or she puts on and removes an item of clothing while describing the action aloud (e.g., "I am putting on this coat"). After several repetitions by the teacher, students join in. Every child should have a turn at leading this activity.

Lesson 7

a) The teacher tells or reads a story or leads one or two songs.

b) The forms for putting on and taking off are reviewed by means of the flannel board. Additional vocabulary can be introduced (e.g., "Bonnie is cold; she is putting on a coat").

c) Working in groups, students tell one another to put on or take off items of clothing. One group can use the flannel board.

Lesson 8

a) The class sings one or two songs.

b) Students play Back to Back as in lesson 6.

c) The teacher displays a picture, and students describe what the people in it are wearing. Students can use various forms (e.g., "She has a hat" as well as "She is wearing a hat"). Colours can be included.

d) The teacher selects one of the following two activities:

- Duplicated copies of two different pictures are prepared beforehand by the teacher (e.g., a boy in summer clothing and a girl in winter clothing). The class is divided into two groups, one of which colours the picture of the boy while the other colours the picture of the girl. Each child pairs up with a partner from the other group and, without showing his or her picture, tells his or her partner how to colour the picture that the partner has not yet done, so that the pictures of the two partners will match. When the partners have finished their pictures according to instructions, students compare their versions and then switch roles.

- The teacher gives students duplicated copies of figures and then verbal instructions on how to colour the figures (e.g., "Colour his pants blue"). As he or she gives the instructions, the teacher should move around the room, providing help where necessary.

Lesson 9

a) The class sings one or two songs.

b) The teacher collects the children's outdoor clothing or the clothing items from lesson 1 in a pile and asks questions, such as "Whose coat is this?" The teacher can extend the replies given into full sentences (e.g., "Yes, it's Donna's coat").

c) Students play a relay game. The class is divided into equal teams, and each team is given an item of clothing. Both teams must have the same kind of item (e.g., a coat). At a signal from the teacher, the coat is put on and taken off by each team member in turn. The first team to have all its members put on and take off the coat is the winner.

Lesson 10

a) The teacher reads a story or leads one or two songs.

b) The teacher reviews the form Whose coat is this? from the previous lesson. Students themselves ask the questions.

c) Depending on the time available, the teacher chooses from among the following activities:

- Students can play Bingo, using pictures of items of clothing instead of numbers on their cards.
- Students can divide into groups and play the hiding game from lesson 2.
- Students can play the relay game from lesson 9.
- Students can play What's Missing? (see page 31).
- Students can organize a fashion show, using modern and traditional clothing.

EVALUATION

Introduction

Evaluation is an essential component of the teaching and learning process as well as of program development. It has two elements: program evaluation and student assessment. (See the section entitled "Evaluation" in the guideline Native Languages, 1987, Part A.)

Program evaluation looks at the NSL program as a whole, examining its goals and objectives, its administration and implementation (including teaching techniques and materials), and its involvement with the community. Program evaluation produces an overall picture of the working program, identifies areas in need of change, and suggests modifications. It should be a constructive process, a way of finding out what works and of improving methods of implementation.

Program evaluation can be formative or summative. Formative evaluation is an ongoing process that takes place while the program is in operation. It identifies successful and problematic elements and suggests immediate modifications. Summative evaluation takes place at the end of the school year, with the aim of assessing the degree to which the program has fulfilled its objectives. It provides the basis for modification of the existing program and for plans for the future.

The other component of evaluation, student assessment, must be directly related to program objectives and must be based on classroom and community activities. Teacher-generated tests look at the students' achievements in various ways. Proficiency tests, for example, determine the level of students' language skills. (These tests are often used for placement purposes.) Achievement tests compare what students have learned with the objectives of the language program. Tests can evaluate students' progress in a unit, course, or year. They can also be used to identify individual problems.

Program Evaluation

Purpose

The NSL program, with its twin goals of language learning and cultural awareness, has very specific objectives that set it apart from other language programs. Program

evaluation provides the opportunity for administrators, school staff, and members of the community to ascertain whether the program is meeting the particular needs of Native-language students. In order to meet those needs, the program must make students feel involved. The content must be interesting and challenging, touching on themes and topics that are meaningful to students.

As a rule, teachers feel that program evaluation is the concern of administrators. This is not the case. In addition to supervisory officers, administrators, and department heads, teachers are essential participants in the process of program evaluation. Teachers not only collect data for evaluation but also use it themselves to implement change in their own classrooms and to recommend modifications in the program as a whole.

Techniques

Teachers can collect data to be used in program evaluation from a variety of sources, ranging from members of the community and school personnel to the students themselves.

Student feedback is an important part of program evaluation. Teachers can give students simple questionnaires every two weeks or once a month. Students can be asked (anonymously, if teachers prefer) to rank all topics covered in the time period on a scale of one to five (one = I didn't like it at all; five = I liked it very much). Space can also be provided for comments (in the Native language, if possible). The results of the questionnaires can be shared with the class and may provide lively classroom discussion.

More detailed feedback can, in higher grades, be obtained through more sophisticated questionnaires. These focus not only on the content of a theme or unit but also on the objectives of the unit and the associated activities. A questionnaire of this type could contain statements such as the following for students to fill in:

1. I enjoyed the discussion of _____.
2. I did not enjoy the discussion of _____.
3. I increased my knowledge about _____.
4. I increased my understanding of the nature of _____.
5. I did not understand _____.
6. I enjoyed writing about _____.
7. I did not enjoy writing about _____.
8. I improved my research skills by _____.
9. I found the language of _____ difficult.

10. I found the language of _____ somewhat difficult.
11. I found the language of _____ fairly easy.
12. I found the language of _____ very easy.
13. I would like to know more about _____.

Students can also be asked their opinions on the distribution of class time; they may feel that they are not getting enough speaking practice, for example.

The teacher can also prepare questionnaires for students designed to evaluate classroom activities. In such cases the questions used must be specific (e.g., which was the best drill, the best game, the best writing activity, and so on). If students can be encouraged to indicate why they enjoyed particular activities, valuable information can be collected which, together with the teacher's own notes, can help determine why one activity encouraged students to speak freely, for example, and another did not. Alternatively, questionnaires can simply ask students to identify which activities have been the most interesting, the most helpful, the least helpful, the most boring, and so forth.

The information gathered through these questionnaires can be very useful to teachers in helping them choose topics and plan activities. Questionnaires are also valuable for students, as the process of assessment involved in filling out questionnaires can develop the students' awareness and understanding of the learning process and can give them a sense of participation and involvement in the program.

As well as collecting evaluation data from their students, teachers should record their own observations. They should assess the degree to which their classes meet the aims and objectives of each unit as well as of the program as a whole. Repetition drills and memorization exercises are not appropriate, for example, if the objective is to have students learn to express their ideas. The teacher should observe the amount of time he or she spends talking in class; with a communicative approach, students should be speaking at least half of the time. The teacher should also observe the ratio of lessons and activities focused on each of the four language skills and note whether the time allotment suggested in the guideline is being followed. (See Native Languages, 1987, Part A, figure 1.) A checklist can help teachers keep a balance between types of activities. If most of one week's time

has been taken up by a writing project, for example, the following week's classes should emphasize reading, speaking, and listening skills.

Finally, observations about the students' use of the Native language inside and outside the classroom can indicate the program's degree of success in attaining its language goals. Teachers can note in what contexts students use the language, whether they use it only to answer questions, or whether they actually speak it to one another in class. Members of the community can also contribute information on students' use of the Native language outside the school context.

Assessment of Resources

The assessment of resources and of their use in the classroom is an important element of program evaluation. Materials must suit not only the students' level of proficiency in the language, but their age level as well. For example, books for young children will not appeal to secondary school students, even if the language used in them suits the teenagers' reading level. Thus, content as well as degree of difficulty must be considered when materials are chosen.

Materials should also be culturally relevant. The students' own environment should be the starting point. Students should, of course, be exposed to attitudes, habits, and environments outside their experience - but in addition to, not instead of, the reality of their own world.

Materials must also be geared to the objectives of the program. Reading skills in the communicative approach, for example, include subskills such as skimming, scanning, and finding supporting examples. Reading materials must have sufficient range to provide students with practice in all of the subskills that belong to the objectives.

Teachers should keep a record of what resources they use and how effectively the resources help students to achieve the intended objectives. The availability of resources may be a problem in NSL programs. This should be noted in the program evaluation.

Student Assessment

Purpose

The purpose of student assessment is not simply to obtain a mark for the student's report card. It is an ongoing process designed to assess and foster the student's growth throughout the year.

Assessment must be directly related to the objectives of the program and must be based on classroom and community activities. Written tests are not sufficient as a means of assessment. Observation by the teacher (documented in anecdotal records) should be combined with the assessment of all of the student's work: quizzes, tests, written assignments, oral presentations, and group activities. Student self-evaluation and evaluation by peers can also be incorporated in the assessment of a student's progress.

Student assessment also provides information that allows teachers to assess the effectiveness of the teaching program. Clearly stated objectives must be available as a framework against which students' progress can be measured. These objectives are most useful for assessment purposes if they are broken down into a series of subsidiary objectives. If a student's achievement in a given objective proves to be unsatisfactory, teachers must attempt to determine whether the teaching method or the actual curriculum could be improved.

Student assessment should monitor students' language skills. Assessment data can identify difficulties that students are experiencing and can allow teachers to design individual, group, or class programs to focus on particular problems. Information gathered over time will reveal the rate of students' progress.

If student achievement is to be judged fairly, students must be assessed individually, as they progress at their own pace. Tests that measure students' work against a perfect model may assess performance according to an objective standard, but they are inadequate as a means of determining individual progress. Likewise, comparing students to one another does not measure their development. Assessment should be performed frequently in order to measure the student's rate of improvement, relative to his or her own level of skills at the beginning of the year, on the last assignment, and so forth.

Techniques

Anecdotal assessment and personal profiles

In addition to the formal assessment techniques described below, teachers can compile informal assessment data. Anecdotal records of students' use of language and their classroom behaviour need not be kept regularly, but teachers may find them to be particularly useful for students who require extra help. The following is an example of an anecdotal record:

Beth is starting to settle in now. She is still easily distracted but does do most of her homework.

Had written "I am Mohawk and proud of it" on the cover of her notebook. I translated it into Mohawk for her. She seemed pleased and wrote the translation on the back of her book. Participates a lot more in class activities.

Teachers may also simply write comments such as the following: "Speaks a lot, with few errors; seems to understand all instructions."

If teachers find this kind of anecdotal record too time-consuming, they can prepare checklists such as the one illustrated in table 4, which they can fill in while observing students involved in individual or group work. Checklists should be geared to program objectives and students' proficiency levels.

Teachers may find that personal profiles detailing preferences and interests help them assess the performance of individual students. Information from personal-profile records can also help teachers tailor activities and other aspects of the program to the students' individual needs and interests.

Table 4: Sample Anecdotal Assessment Checklist

Billy Smith

	Always	Often	Usually	Seldom	Never
Listening					
- understands instructions					
- understands main idea					
- follows stories					
Speaking					
- participates in activities					
- makes errors in pronunciation					
- makes errors in vocabulary					
- can speak: fluently					
accurately					
effectively					
- speaks to teacher					
- speaks to peers					
Reading					
- can read: short sentences					
paragraphs					
longer texts					
- understands main idea					
- skims					
- scans					
Writing					
- can write: words					
sentences					
paragraphs					
essays					
- makes errors in sentence structure					
- makes errors in vocabulary					
- writing is organized					
- writing is effective					
- uses correct spelling					

Personal profiles can begin with a list of the following: interests, favourite classroom activities, least favourite classroom activities, and favourite books. Students can add to the record by filling in the blanks in questionnaires related to learning styles, as in the following example:

Listening
I like listening to _____.
My favourite story to listen to is _____.

Speaking
I like talking about _____.
I like talking to _____.
My favourite song/chant/poem is _____.

Reading
I like reading about _____.
My favourite book is _____.
My favourite author is _____.

Writing
I like writing about _____.
I like writing _____.
My stories/compositions this year are _____.

General
The thing I like most of all in school is _____.
The thing I like most of all outside school is _____.

Anecdotal assessments and personal profiles do not provide an objective ranking of students' performance in the Native language. However, these cumulative records do help teachers make judgements about students' progress and can be used to supplement formal assessment when marks are assigned.

Teachers may find some of the techniques of formal assessment useful in compiling personal profiles and anecdotal assessments.

Formal assessment

More formal methods of assessment are used to test students' achievements in the program and communicate them to the school, to parents, and, of course, to the students themselves. These include quizzes, multiple-choice tests, written tests, and oral presentations.

Formal tests are not recommended for Primary Division students, who should be evaluated on the basis of classroom activities. The testing of Junior students should be limited. In the Intermediate and Senior Divisions, however, formal testing should be a regular part of the program.

Students should be given the opportunity to practise and apply what they have been taught before being tested. New types of activities should not be introduced for assessment purposes; for example, vocabulary and structures that have been studied orally should be tested orally, not by means of written tests. A test of students' conversational abilities should not examine grammatical accuracy alone, but should include an evaluation of students' fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation, effectiveness in communicating, and ability to handle a conversation (e.g., to take turns).

Assessment Criteria

For assessment to be valid, consistent criteria must be applied. Tests that evaluate the students' ability to read and listen for information are quite straightforward. Speaking and writing, however, being more complex activities, are more difficult to evaluate. Tables 5 and 6 have been provided to help teachers assess students' paragraphs and essays and their speaking skills in dialogue and group contexts.

Assessment Reports

Progress reports

Progress reports - indicating the student's personal improvement as opposed to rating his or her objective achievement - are not required by all schools. Teachers may, however, wish to include them with report cards and issue them at other times throughout the year as well.

Language-proficiency reports

Longer, more detailed assessments should document students' level of language proficiency. These reports can be made at particular stages during the program or at the end of the term. Teachers should assess students' abilities in the four language skills according to a series of defined language objectives. Schools vary in what they include in language-proficiency reports.

Table 5: Assessment of Writing Skills

	Excellent to Very Good (81-100%)	Good to Average (60-80%)	Fair to Poor (25-59%)	Very Poor (0-24%)
Language Use	- effective, complex constructions - few grammatical errors	- effective but simple constructions - minor problems with complex constructions - some grammatical errors	- major problems with complex constructions - restricted to mainly simple sentences - frequent grammatical errors	- virtually no mastery of rules of sentence construction - work dominated by errors - does not communicate
Vocabulary	- sophisticated range - effective choice and use of words and idioms showing mastery of word forms	- adequate range - occasional errors of word or idiom form, choice, and use, but meaning not obscured	- limited range - frequent errors of word or idiom form, choice, and use - meaning obscured or confused	- essentially a direct translation - shows little knowledge of Native vocabulary, idioms, or word forms
Content	- relates to and thoroughly develops assigned topic	- mostly relates to assigned topic - limited development and support of ideas	- does not relate to assigned topic - inadequate development of ideas	- irrelevant to assigned topic
Organization	- ideas well-organized and clearly stated - logical sequencing - good paragraph form	- loosely organized, but main ideas stand out - logical but incomplete or inconsistent sequencing - written in paragraph form	- ideas confused or disconnected - no logical or consistent sequencing - not written in paragraph form	- ideas do not come across - no organization - not written in paragraph form

Table 6: Assessment of Speaking Skills

	Excellent to Very Good (81-100%)	Good to Average (60-80%)	Fair to Poor (25-59%)	Very Poor (0-24%)
Grammar and Vocabulary (These can be assessed through dialogues, class presentations, or group discussions.)	- large vocabulary - few errors in sentence structure	- control of general vocabulary - meaning comprehensible despite occasional errors in sentence structure	- vocabulary limited, causing communication to break down from time to time - meaning not always comprehensible because of errors	- inadequate for anything but the most basic conversation - constant errors in sentence structure make meaning difficult to comprehend
Pronunciation (This can be assessed through dialogues, class presentations, or group discussions.)	- few errors in pronunciation, stress, and intonation - errors are not distracting and do not cause problems with meaning	- with some exceptions, stress and intonation patterns resemble those of Native speakers - some mispronuncia-tions that affect meaning	- incorrect speech sounds make meaning hard to understand - many sound-substitution errors - stress, rhythm, and intonation patterns unlike those of Native speakers - awkward and slow speech	- meaning extremely difficult to understand because of substitutions or improper articulation of sounds or incorrect stress, rhythm, and intonation patterns
Discourse Development (This can be assessed through group discussions.)	- ideas initiated, sustained, expanded, and developed - clear, logical relationships and shifts of direction - smooth adjustment to partner's change of direction	- clear and effective response despite problems initiating or changing topics - repetition rather than clarification if partner does not understand	- problems following changes of topic - clarification or repetition required - no sustained discourse - short responses only	- no meaningful discourse - hesitations and frequent misunderstandings - partner works very hard to keep conversation going

Table 6: Assessment of Speaking Skills (cont.)

	Excellent to Very Good (81-100%)	Good to Average (60-80%)	Fair to Poor (25-59%)	Very Poor (0-24%)
Conversation Management (This can be assessed through group discussions.)	- student holds the floor effectively and gives it up at appropriate times - capable of "long turns"	- student holds the floor and will not let others take a turn or gains the floor from time to time but cannot keep it - relies on one or two fixed expressions	- student monopolizes the floor or is seldom successful in gaining a turn	- student cannot keep conversation going - unable to gain the floor

The accompanying model checklist (table 7) can be used as a guide in assessing Primary and Junior Division students' performance in the four language skills. The checklist will be most helpful for teachers compiling formal language-proficiency reports, although it can also be used for anecdotal assessment and progress reports.

The accompanying model rating scale (table 8) presents a series of progressively more difficult achievements in each of the four language skills, and can be useful for the assessment of Intermediate and Senior Division students. Teachers can use this model simply as a guide in evaluating student performance, or they can incorporate it into their formal reports. The model must be adjusted to suit the requirements of students at different grade levels.

Errors and Communicative Teaching

Introduction

The emphasis placed on rules of grammar and correct sentence structure in the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods leads teachers and students to see errors simply as evidence that students have not learned enough. If, however, teachers adopt the communicative approach, they must re-examine the role of errors in the learning process and view them from a new perspective.

No one expects children learning their mother tongue to speak without making mistakes. Nor are children expected to delay verbal communication until they can speak grammatically in correct sentences. The same principle

Table 7: Model Checklist for the Primary and Junior Divisions

Listening

1. The student reveals his or her level of understanding of the language patterns and vocabulary taught in class:
   a) by his or her actions (e.g., draws pictures as instructed, plays games correctly, puts pictures in sequence);
   b) by speaking (e.g., responds appropriately to invitations to speak, questions, and commands);
   c) by asking questions in order to clarify the meaning of instructions.
2. The student reveals an understanding of additional language patterns and vocabulary:
   a) by his or her actions;
   b) by speaking.
3. The student responds to songs.
4. The student enjoys listening to stories.
5. The student listens:
   a) to the teacher;
   b) to peers;
   c) in groups with the teacher;
   d) in peer groups.

Speaking

1. The student exhibits an understanding of the language patterns and vocabulary taught in class. He or she:
   a) communicates effectively;
   b) speaks accurately;
   c) applies language patterns beyond the examples taught;
   d) in group activities, speaks both chorally and individually.
2. The student shows a familiarity with additional language patterns and vocabulary. He or she:
   a) experiments with language not yet taught;
   b) communicates effectively;
   c) speaks accurately.
3. The student participates in songs, games, and dramatic activities.
4. The student talks:
   a) to the teacher;
   b) to peers;
   c) in groups with the teacher;
   d) in peer groups.

Reading

1. The student enjoys listening to stories.
2. The student enjoys silent reading.
3. The student voluntarily uses the library.
4. The student has favourite books.
5. The student reads books independently.
6. The student shows an understanding of the material read in class by:
   a) exhibiting increasing fluency in oral reading (not just reading word by word);
   b) his or her actions (e.g., by drawing pictures or writing stories with the same theme as those read in class);
   c) his or her spoken responses (e.g., retelling stories with the flannel board and relating them to personal experiences).

Writing

1. The student shows developing control of:
   a) letter formation;
   b) direction;
   c) spacing.
2. The student writes:
   a) alone;
   b) with the teacher;
   c) in groups with the teacher;
   d) with peers.
3. In teacher-guided writing activities, the student:
   a) attempts lesson activities (e.g., labelling, preparation of booklets);
   b) completes activities;
   c) shows inventiveness.
4. In student-controlled writing activities, the student:
   a) voluntarily writes or draws every day;
   b) adds details to his or her drawings;

Table 7: Model Checklist for the Primary and Junior Divisions (cont.)

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
6. The student listens to various kinds of communication (e.g., stories, instructions, factual material). 7. The student grasps and understands ideas and information and reveals this through processes such as the following: a) sequencing (e.g., recreating stories on a flannel board) b) classifying (e.g., distinguishing hot things from cold ones) c) making inferences (e.g., that ice signifies winter) d) predicting (e.g., the outcome of a story) e) recognizing relationships (e.g., same and different, cause and effect) f) recognizing essential ideas	5. The student uses speech for various purposes (e.g., explaining, expressing personal ideas and feelings, expressing wishes, giving or asking for instructions, asking or answering questions, narrating personal experiences). 6. The student exhibits an ability to develop and organize ideas and information (e.g., he or she can classify information and put it in proper sequence).	7. The student uses the following to help interpret the material he or she is reading: a) background knowledge b) grammatical knowledge c) phonic cues (e.g., initial consonants and word families) d) pictures 8. The student: a) self-corrects or rereads if the first reading does not make sense or sound right; b) makes errors in reading that are nevertheless related to the correct meaning (e.g., reads little baby for baby or tree for branch). 9. The student likes to read: a) alone; b) to or with the teacher; c) in pairs or groups with the teacher; d) to or with peers. 10. The student reads for various reasons (e.g., to obtain information or to discover and share the ideas and feelings of others). 11. The student's response to reading materials exhibits an ability to develop and organize information and ideas (e.g., he or she can classify information and put it in proper sequence).	c) uses invented spellings; d) uses vocabulary and language patterns taught in class; e) is progressing towards correct language use; f) experiments with language not yet taught; g) is extending his or her vocabulary; h) experiments with different forms (e.g., poems, stories, plays, and presentations of facts); i) exhibits an ability to develop and organize information and ideas (e.g., he or she can stay on topic and can develop ideas in proper sequence).

Table 8: Model Rating Scale for the Intermediate and Senior Divisions

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
The student:	The student:	The student:	The student:
1. is able to distinguish key sounds and stress and intonation patterns and can understand a few single-word utterances;	1. uses one-word utterances to respond to questions;	1. reads words only;	1. writes single words only;
2. requires slow articulation and repetition in order to understand;	2. is capable of disconnected speech but is unable to maintain interaction;	2. reads short sentences only;	2. writes simple sentences only;
3. understands conversation of slower than normal speed in sentences that have a simple structure and simple vocabulary;	3. speaks with great hesitation and makes many mistakes in grammar and vocabulary;	3. reads very slowly, word by word, with little overall understanding of simple texts;	3. is able to combine a variety of sentences, using basic logical relationships, but makes many grammatical errors;
4. understands most of a conversation of normal speed in sentences that have a simple structure and simple vocabulary;	4. speaks with hesitation and makes some mistakes in grammar and vocabulary;	4. reads slowly and has a general understanding of the ideas of most simple texts;	4. is able to combine a variety of sentences, using basic logical relationships, but makes some grammatical errors;
5. understands the main points of a conversation at normal speed, but asks for occasional explanations;	5. speaks when spoken to but rarely takes the initiative; does not speak fluently, and makes grammatical errors;	5. reads slowly and understands simple stories containing a variety of language patterns and vocabulary;	5. is able to write a simple paragraph that exhibits a sense of organization, but makes many grammatical errors;
6. understands the main points of a conversation at normal speed and grasps the main idea of films and lectures intended for a general audience;	6. can maintain a conversation, sometimes taking the initiative, and speaks fluently but with grammatical errors;	6. reads at average speed, uses context clues to determine the meaning of some unfamiliar vocabulary, and understands the literal meaning of uncomplicated texts;	6. is able to write a simple paragraph that exhibits a sense of organization, but makes some grammatical errors;
7. understands and can recall almost everything he or she has heard.	7. can maintain a conversation, sometimes taking the initiative, and speaks hesitantly but usually without grammatical errors;	7. reads different kinds of written material (e.g., news items, instructions, stories) and fully understands the literal meaning;	7. is able to write a short essay that exhibits a sense of organization, but makes many grammatical errors;
	8. can maintain a conversation, sometimes taking the initiative, and speaks fluently and usually without grammatical errors;	8. reads material written in a variety of styles (e.g., poetry, short stories, essays) and understands subtleties as well as the literal meaning of difficult material.	8. is able to write a short essay that exhibits a sense of organization, but makes some grammatical errors;
	9. can carry on a conversation effectively and has the ability of a native speaker.		

Table 8: Model Rating Scale for the Intermediate and Senior Divisions (cont.)

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
			The student:
			9. is able to write an essay with an organized structure, uses a range of language patterns and vocabulary, and exhibits a knowledge of stylistic devices.

applies to learners of a second language, who must try to communicate before they have thoroughly mastered the vocabulary and the grammatical rules of the language they are learning. In particular, language teaching that emphasizes communication encourages students to speak and write as soon as possible and leads them to attempt to use vocabulary and language patterns that they have not yet mastered. Experimenting in this way, students inevitably make mistakes.

When students learn a new language, they make hypotheses and use various strategies in an attempt to make sense of the way in which the new language works. Transference, whereby the student transfers a construction from the mother tongue into the second language, is one such strategy. This helps the speaker find words with which to communicate, but not always the right ones or in the right place. An English speaker, for example, used to English word order (i.e., subject followed by verb followed by object), might produce the following two sentences in French:

Je mange du pain. (I'm eating some bread.)
Je mange le. (I'm eating it.)

The first sentence is correct, but the second should be Je le mange. Transference has led the student to make a mistake in word order.

Generalization is another strategy used by second-language students to extend their range. From their observation of the language, students build on rules or examples that they have learned or encountered. For example, because they have observed that the plural of table and book is formed by the addition of an s, students add s to other nouns to create plurals. This practice can lead to overgeneralization, however, in which the observed rule is incorrectly applied (e.g., the addition of s to mouse or foot).

Errors caused by transference and generalization are indicators that the learning process is at work. They show that students are not simply receiving information passively but are actively involved in working out ways of expressing themselves. Despite the occurrence of errors, this is obviously a productive process and should be encouraged.

Types of Errors

There are two main types of errors, from the communicative point of view. Global errors are sufficiently serious to make the speaker's or writer's meaning difficult or impossible to understand. Local errors are small mistakes that do not interfere with the meaning of the sentence.

Correction of Errors

Oral activities

The correction of errors is an important issue in communicative language teaching. Teachers must decide what percentage of mistakes should be corrected and when, how, and by whom corrections should be made. Every class will be different, and no hard and fast rules can be formulated. However, since communicative teaching aims expressly to foster students' communicative skills, teachers should keep in mind the fact that overcorrection can make students so concerned with accuracy that they become inhibited and unwilling to experiment.

Some errors, however, must be corrected, since communicative language teaching aims not only for fluency, but also for appropriateness of tone and grammatical accuracy. The teacher's method of correction should vary, depending on the nature of the activity being performed. Mistakes during drills or other structured exercises can be corrected immediately, although it is best to limit correction to those mistakes that relate to the objective of the drill. Mistakes made during communicative activities should not be corrected at the time but should be noted by the teacher and worked on in subsequent activities. Follow-up sessions should focus on global rather than local errors and should provide feedback on questions of social appropriateness, vocabulary, and content. Grammatical problems, consistent errors, and other areas of difficulty observed by the teacher during these activities can be made the basis of separate lessons.

Writing activities

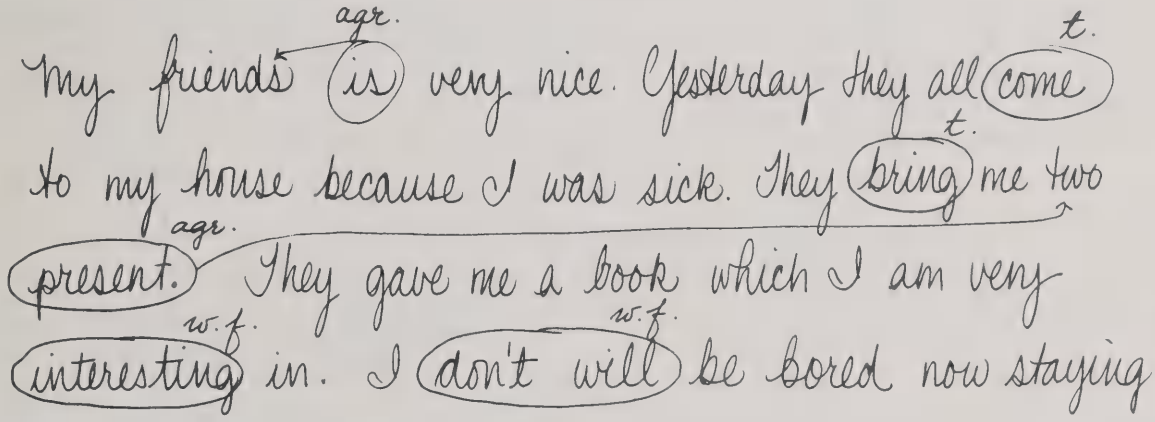
Writing activities provide teachers with an opportunity for more systematic feedback. The correction of written work can be more individual and less public than that of oral activities. It also has the advantage of leaving students with a concrete record of their particular difficulties. In general, rather than correcting the mistakes in a piece

of writing, teachers should indicate what kinds of errors have been made. For students in the Junior, Intermediate, and Senior Divisions, teachers can prepare and provide a list of possible types of errors, using abbreviations and symbols. Students can then rewrite their pieces, using the abbreviations as a guide in correcting their own errors. Every language has different errors, so standard lists of corrections will necessarily differ. Native-language teachers will have to compile their own lists of corrections and their abbreviations, based on English models such as the following:

t.	= tense	(e.g., "I come yesterday.")
agr.	= agreement	(e.g., "The boys is here.")
w.c.	= word choice	(e.g., "Canada is a big city.")
w.f.	= word form	(e.g., "He speaks slow.")

Teachers must, of course, ensure that students understand the abbreviations and the structural rules involved before they are used for the purposes of correction.

The following is an example of a piece of writing corrected in this way:


agr.
t.
My friends is very nice. Yesterday they all come
t.
to my house because I was sick. They bring me two
agr.
present. They gave me a book which I am very
w.f.
w.f.
interesting in. I don't will be bored now staying
in bed.

Teachers can write longer comments concerning persistent mistakes, explaining the source of the error and giving

examples of the correct form. For example, the final mistake in the example above can be treated in this way:

Modal verbs (can, may, must, shall, will, could, might, should, would, ought to) are different from ordinary verbs. You don't need do to make a negative or a question. For example:

He cannot go.
Can he go?
She will not do it.
Will she do it?

Peer correction in groups, another means of correcting errors, can give students the opportunity to discuss their ideas about the language while analysing their own written work. Since students are working with material that they themselves have produced, they will share the errors observed and discussed. Peer correction must, however, be managed in such a way that it does not cause embarrassment. If the writing is anonymous, or produced by a group, the discussion of the piece will not single out any individual for criticism.

THE NSL PROGRAM IN THE CONTEXT OF THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

Co-operation Within the School

Various members of the school staff can serve as resources for one another in developing a successful NSL program that is responsive to the needs of the students for whom it is intended and that takes maximum advantage of the available resources. Such co-operation will also benefit other school programs and reinforce the idea that the NSL program has a legitimate place in the curriculum. The Native-language teacher and other members of the school staff can work together in the following ways:

- The Native-language teacher and regular classroom teachers should familiarize themselves with each other's programs. They can meet regularly to develop teaching ideas and materials. If the NSL curriculum is taught on a theme basis, the Native-language teacher and the appropriate subject teachers should, if possible, co-ordinate their efforts.

- Teachers can sit in on each other's classes. This will give them an overview of their students' entire program.

- All school staff should co-operate in the setting-up of timetables. If possible, Native-language classes should not be scheduled at difficult times, such as immediately before lunch or at the end of the day.

- Regular-class teachers can provide time in their classes for language activities, so that students are given the opportunity to make use of their language skills in other contexts, outside the time allotted to language learning in the curriculum.

- Native-language and regular-class teachers can work together on strategies for individual students. They can also work co-operatively on student assessment and jointly present students' report cards to parents.

- Bulletin boards or other displays of students' Native-language work can be put up in the regular classroom.

- School projects, drama nights, school clubs, and other school-wide activities should include NSL contributions in the Native language from students in the NSL program.

- Native-language teachers can share ideas on teaching methods, materials, and curriculum planning with other second-language teachers.

- In some schools, the Native-language teacher is the only staff member who speaks the local Native language. He or she can therefore act as an important link between the school and the community. Native-language teachers may be called upon to translate at parent-school meetings and at the presentation of report cards, to explain school projects to the community, and to explain the local culture to non-Native colleagues in the school.

- School staff can set up a program of classroom visits for parents, grandparents, or other interested members of the community.

- Groups made up of Native-language teachers from schools within a wide area can be formed. These groups can meet to discuss problems and share ideas and information. Assistance for the formation of groups and the arranging of meetings can often be obtained from school principals and school boards. Time and effort are required to establish networks such as these, but the assistance and support they provide are worth the effort.

Older students in the program can also be called upon in this co-operative process. As they often know the younger children outside the school setting and are indeed often related to them, older students can make the children feel more comfortable and less shy about expressing themselves. Students from Grade 6 up can take over some of the following functions of the teacher:

- reading to the younger children and listening to them read
- helping the children label pictures
- acting as leaders in communicative activities
- helping produce "booklets" of the younger children's work by typing the text or helping with the cover
- transcribing stories told to them by the younger children and helping the younger children read the stories from the transcriptions
- helping the teacher make materials for language practice
- working one-on-one with younger children on particular areas of difficulty

Teachers can develop a team spirit among their student helpers by outlining some of their reasons for selecting particular strategies and activities. Teachers find that

explaining the objectives of activities strengthens the sense of participation and commitment to the program of their student helpers, leading them to work with greater enthusiasm.

Co-operation Between the School and the Community

Program Planning

School boards or advisory committees help maintain contact between the school and the community and provide an opportunity for local people to participate in program development and implementation. Native organizations, such as cultural or friendship centres, are made up of parents and other community members who have an interest in school programs. These organizations can be involved in program planning and can provide the local support and assistance that are so important in making the NSL program a success.

At the initial planning stages, Native-language teachers can inform community members of the program's goals. The topics and themes to be raised and the level of language proficiency to be aimed for can be discussed. Teaching methods should also be described and explained. Many community members will not be familiar with the communicative approach and should be exposed to the technique through talks, discussions, and class visits, during which they can see displays and demonstrations and perhaps observe lessons in progress.

The participation of these community groups in the NSL program should be invited for several reasons. Firstly, community groups can recommend topics and themes of particular local relevance for inclusion in the program. Secondly, they can organize community resources to support the program: field trips, student broadcasts on local radio stations, community displays, visiting speakers, and classroom-assistant programs are all ways in which the community can put its resources at the disposal of the school. Thirdly, local groups can promote the acceptance of the program by the rest of the community by pointing out the cultural and personal benefits to be gained by the students participating in the program.

Fewer community resources are available to teachers in schools outside reserves. Teachers in such schools could suggest that the local school board contact members of the Native community outside the board, with whom Native-language teachers could work to further the aims of the program.

School-Community Relations and Language Awareness

The following are some suggestions for projects aimed at developing school-community relations and heightening language awareness in the local community. These projects are based on activities carried out by Native-language teachers in Ontario Native communities where the local language was in danger of disappearing.

- An oral Native-language learning program could be established for learners of all ages.

- An adult-literacy program could be established.

- Posters in the Native language could be put up at community events, such as harvest festivals, bake sales, and choir meetings. Elementary and secondary students could make the posters in school.

- The Native language could be used in some way at community events; for example, agendas for community meetings could be written in the Native language, or foods could be labelled in both languages at bake sales.

- Local radio stations, which generally broadcast in English, could insert Native-language announcements.

- Bilingual local newsletters could be produced, using the school's equipment. Cartoons, stories, brief articles, and announcements could be written in the Native language, while English-language content could include articles from magazines and newspapers related to Native language and culture.

- A summer language program for students could be established.

- A telephone consulting service could be established for those with questions on vocabulary, language patterns, or other aspects of the Native language.

- Community bingo games, using words rather than numbers, could be organized. Prizes could be donated by local stores.

- T-shirts or buttons with appropriate messages (e.g., "Speak to me in Cree" or "Let's speak Mohawk again") could be made and distributed at community events and throughout the area.

- Students' grandparents could be encouraged to speak the Native language with students in the home, even if students' parents do not know the language and cannot participate.

Community Resources

The best resources of the NSL program are the people of the Native community. They have a wealth of knowledge of Native language and culture, both of which have undergone major transformations during their lifetimes. Teachers can consult community members for assistance in planning units on a wide variety of topics (e.g., history, festivals, clothing, and food). Field trips outside the school or classroom visits by individuals or groups can also be arranged.

Before field trips or classroom visits, teachers and resource people should discuss arrangements, clarify time limits, and find out whether any preparation or materials are required. The language to be used should also be specified, and the Native-language teacher should know if he or she will be required to provide any specific support.

The Native-language teacher should prepare students for the visit. Students can be asked, for example, what they know about the subject to be discussed or the skill to be observed. They can compile lists of questions to be asked. Preparation should also include the introduction or reinforcement of vocabulary or language patterns relevant to the subject of the visit.

The Native-language teacher should be present during the field trip or visit and should help students offer some kind of culturally appropriate thanks to the resource person. The Native-language teacher should also conduct a follow-up session after the activity.

In addition to field trips and classroom visits, community members can participate in the NSL program as volunteer classroom aides. These aides can, in many cases, be treated as additional teachers, even if they do not speak the Native language. Unless they request them, classroom aides should not be given low-level jobs such as cleaning up. They should be informed of classroom procedures and given the opportunity to prepare materials and to work with individual students or groups. The Native-language teacher should attempt to discover any special skills or knowledge possessed by these assistants

that can be made available to the teacher or students. If the aides speak the Native language, they can provide valuable assistance in language practice, both in class and after school hours.

Members of the community are often willing to contribute or lend materials to the school. They may offer photographs, arts and crafts, or recipes, for example. Many also have extensive expertise to offer in such matters as fishing, hunting, and art and can be a source of information for students' research.

Students, especially those in the Intermediate and Senior Divisions, can use these local resources to create booklets about their communities, based on interviews and the materials they collect. The creation of these booklets can be accomplished through individual or class projects. In either case, students conduct the interviews, compile and edit the content material, take photographs, and lay out and complete the final product. Copies of these booklets can be given to the individuals interviewed and to community organizations involved with or interested in the NSL program.

Concrete resources can also be provided by the community. The community store, for example, can be an important source of materials: the teacher can collect empty packages, tins, and cartons from the store in order to create a classroom store. Recipes on containers can be translated. Boxes from the store can be used to make puppet theatres, cardboard vehicles, or sculptures. Posters from the store can also be used for translation exercises.

Nursing stations or clinics can also provide useful materials for schools. A classroom clinic can be set up with posters, first-aid equipment, and so on. In addition to language practice, these classroom clinics are one means of communicating important health information to students.

Local natural resources can also be useful in the classroom. Herbs and berries can be collected, and their various uses discussed. Local industries - sawmills, for example - can provide useful materials, such as sawdust for dolls.

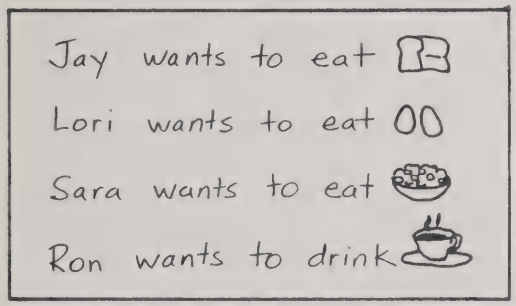
THE DEVELOPMENT OF RESOURCE MATERIALS

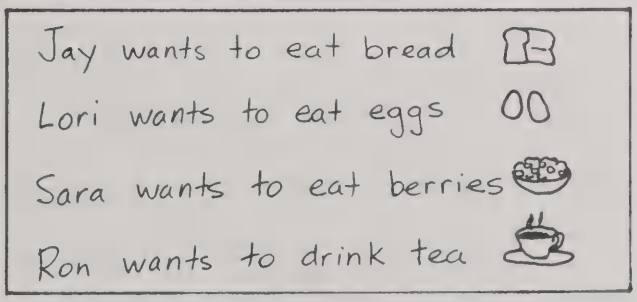
Teacher-Generated Materials

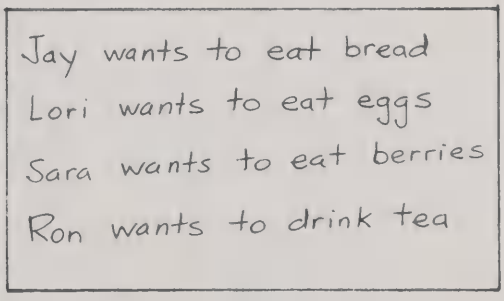
The lack of suitable Native-language teaching materials can be a serious problem. Teachers, therefore, must be prepared to be innovative in generating resources for use in the NSL program. This section contains specific suggestions for classroom materials that can be prepared by the teacher. Teachers may find additional ideas in the books or journals cited in the resources section of this document. Computer materials can also be adapted for Native-language instruction.

1. Picture Files. Teachers can collect and save suitable colour pictures from magazines, advertising handouts, and other sources for vocabulary and language-pattern practice. Such pictures can be filed under different themes (e.g., families, outdoor sports).

2. Pattern Charts. Teachers can construct pattern charts that make use of a repeated language pattern, often combined with drawings or pictures. These charts provide reading practice and are especially useful in the early stages of the program. The three accompanying examples show a possible progression from the simplest form of chart to a more difficult version.







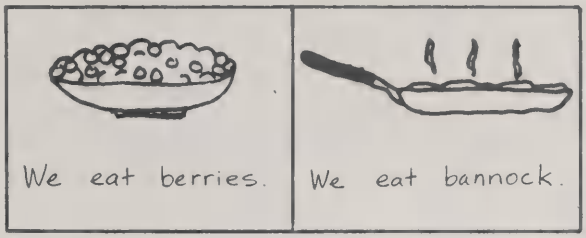
3. Language-Experience Charts. Teachers can record on a chart a student's experience as recounted by the student in his or her own words. Depending on the student's reading level, such charts may consist of sketches with explanatory labels or may contain stories in complete sentences, with or without sketches, as in the accompanying illustrations.

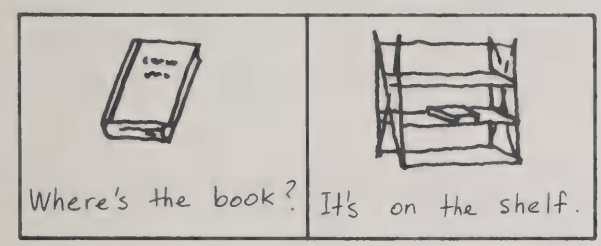
The complete sentences in the chart on the right are in this case grammatically correct. Since teachers are constructing these charts by copying down the students' words, however, the sentences will not always be free of errors. It is nevertheless preferable to write down the students' sentences in their own words, without corrections, as students will find it easier to reread the sentences if they recognize their own expressions. The charts can be corrected on the following day, with students contributing where they can. Teachers should emphasize the fact that, like all writers, students can benefit from editing. (Students in process-writing programs will already be familiar with this concept and procedure).

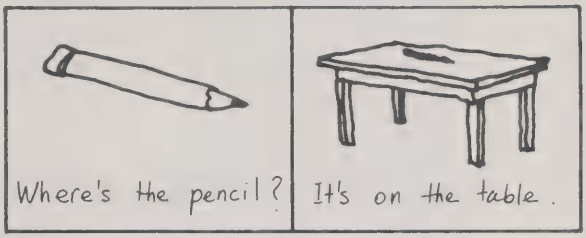
After the charts have been made and used in lessons, they should be left where they can be seen. Students will continue to read them and to learn vocabulary and language patterns from them for a long period of time.

4. Pattern Booklets. Small booklets can be made to illustrate a specific language pattern when it is introduced in class. Simple sketches or pictures can be

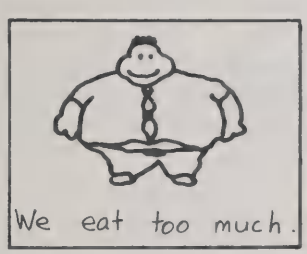
made into booklets and accompanied by an audiotape. If students can read, a written text can accompany the illustrations, as shown here.

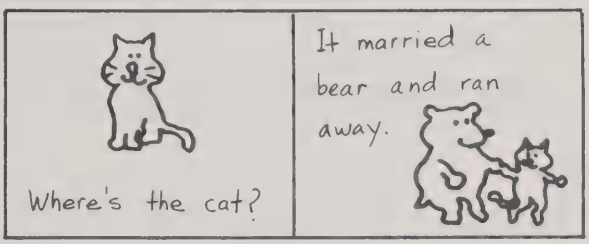






Each illustration of the pattern takes up a single or double page, with six or seven illustrations altogether. Surprising or humorous endings can provide effective closing lines for pattern books:



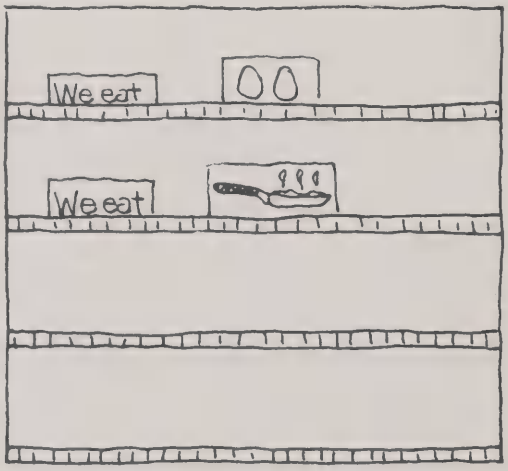


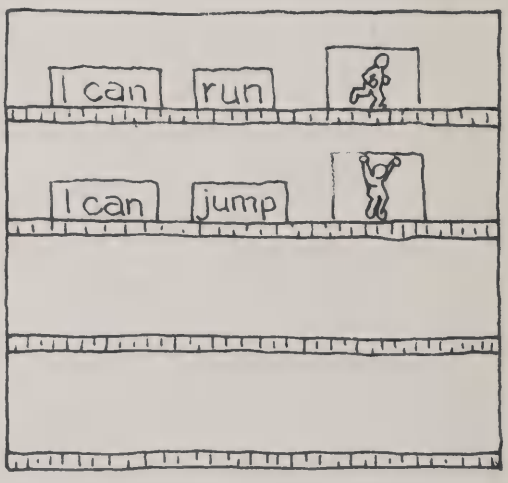
Pattern books with written text can be read to the class. Pattern books without text can also be "read" to students, who learn the patterns by listening. An audiotape can, of course, fulfil the same function as the teacher's oral reading. If there are no listening facilities in the Native-language classroom, students can perhaps listen to tapes in the regular classroom.

5. Other Booklets. (a) Teachers can write down legends or stories based on real events and use them for listening or reading practice. (b) Teachers can make up stories or dialogues based on events involving students. If these are suitable for students' reading levels, students can read them aloud, and they can be taped for later listening. (c) Teachers can construct stories around one photograph or a series of photographs taken of students or others in the community. Even one or two sentences can make a story that students can read.

6. Big Books. Teachers can write out stories (from the booklets produced, for example) in large print on flip-chart paper. Stories with a repetitive structure are particularly suitable. Students can add illustrations to these books, which can be used for individual or choral reading.

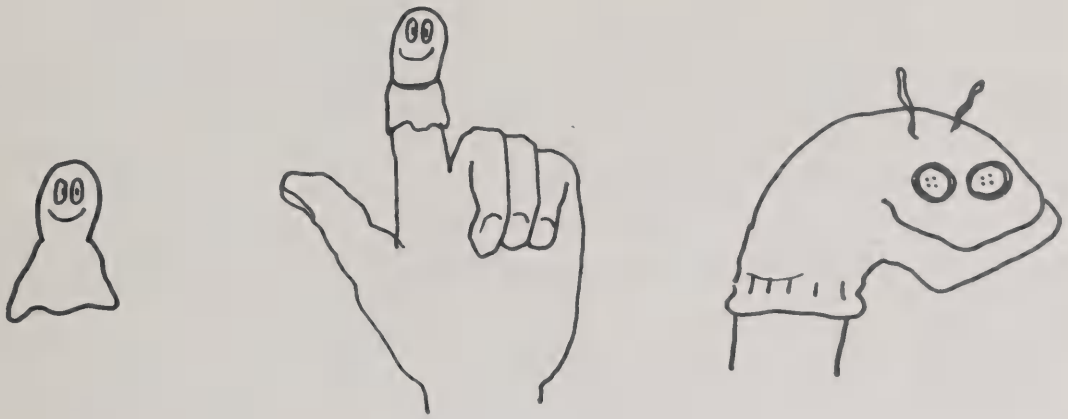
7. Pocket Charts. Teachers can create pocket charts by attaching strips of tag board to a large piece of Bristol board. Pictures and pieces of paper containing words or phrases can be inserted into the pockets to make sentences. Students can work on this activity on their own once it has been initiated by the teacher.





8. Puppets. Puppets can range from the simple to the elaborate. On the simple end of the scale, paper finger puppets can be made and wrapped around the finger, as shown

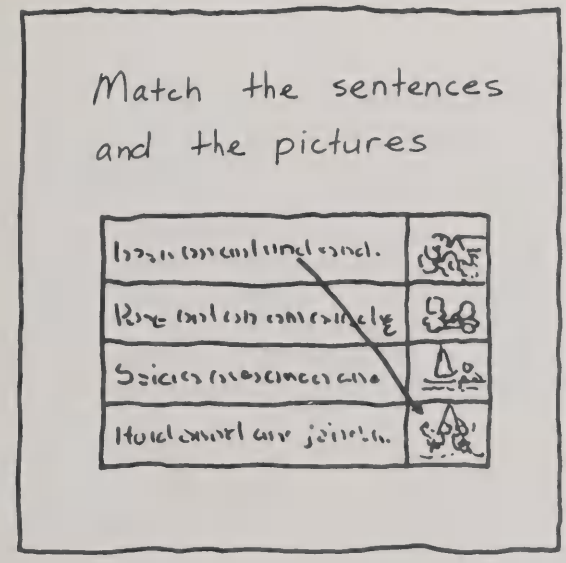
in illustrations 1 and 2, or cloth hand puppets can be constructed from scrap materials, as shown in illustration 3.

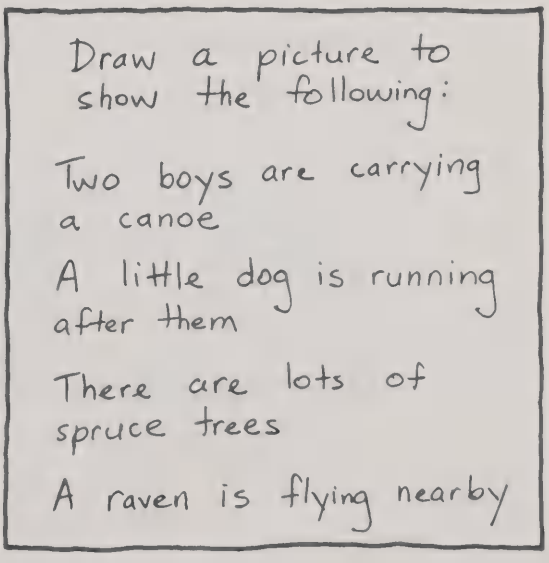


1 2 3

Students as well as teachers can make such puppets, which can be used to introduce vocabulary and language patterns, to demonstrate conversational skills, and to give students the opportunity to practise conversing. Students can also write dialogues for puppet plays.

9. Learning Centres. A learning centre is a separate environment in which a defined task is performed by students working independently without the teacher's assistance. Teachers make up cards to explain in words or pictures what students are to do, as in the accompanying examples. Teachers should keep a file of these instruction cards for reuse. More detailed ideas for learning centres can be found listed under "Classroom Resources" in the Resources section.




Draw a picture to show the following:
Two boys are carrying a canoe
A little dog is running after them
There are lots of spruce trees
A raven is flying nearby

10. Communicative Activities File. As described in the section of this resource guide on communicative activities, teachers should keep a file of the communicative activities that they have used in their classes. This file should include details on procedures, on the resources used (pictures, charts, or forms), and on the particular points of language practised during the activity. The file should also incorporate comments on the outcome of the activity and suggestions for improvements.

The Adaptation of Existing Language Materials

Many Ontario schools have teachers of other second languages besides Native languages. English, French, or heritage-languages teachers may teach vastly different languages, but nevertheless make use of techniques and activities that are similar to those used by Native-language teachers. All second-language teachers can learn from one another. For this reason, regular meetings to discuss strategies and activities can be very productive. In particular, Native-language teachers can adopt the activities and modify the materials used in other second-language classes for use in their program.

For example, picture cards and pattern books without print can be used to teach vocabulary and language patterns in any language. If the books and cards to be used have text in another language, this can be translated by the Native-language teacher as the picture is described or the story is told. If students are to read a story that has a text in another language, paper strips containing Native-language translations can be taped over the original words.

Student-Generated Materials

The work that students produce in Native-language classes (e.g., drawings, tapes, booklets, and other written work) can be used as teaching material: to reinforce language patterns that students have already studied and to introduce new elements. Work done the previous day, week, or throughout the term can be displayed in the classroom. With a little guidance from the teacher, students can make bulletin-board displays of their work in the Native language. The setting-up of the materials and discussions of the displays can be useful exercises in themselves.

Displays should include pattern books of the students' own creation. Reading these booklets not only will reinforce certain points of language but will give students a feeling of pride in their achievements. The booklets should be collected to form an in-class library and should be available for students to read to themselves or to one another.

Students' work from other classes can also be used as a Native-language resource. Students should be encouraged to bring to class their math, science, and social studies materials, for example, and teachers can help them describe them in, or translate them into, the Native language. The exercise of translating these materials not only extends the application of the Native language beyond the narrow context of the language class but has the additional benefit of providing teachers with much-needed resources for their NSL classes.

RESOURCES

This resource section lists a wide range of useful books and periodicals. Because of the shortage of material expressly designed for Native-language instruction, many of the books listed below deal with English-as-a-second-language teaching or English instruction more generally. They can, however, be adapted for use in Native-language teaching.

Reference Books

Theory and Methodology of Language Teaching

Asher, James. Learning Another Language Through Actions. 2nd ed. Los Gatos, Cal.: Sky Oaks Productions, 1982. (Available from P.O. Box 1102, Los Gatos, California 95031, U.S.A.)

Ashworth, Mary. Beyond Methodology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985.

Burnaby, B.; McInnes, J.; Guebert, L.; Izatt, M.; Moore, W.; Speares, J.; and Upper, M., Circle: An Integrated Language Arts Program for Native Children. Toronto: Fitzhenry and Whiteside, 1985. (An ESL text, available for Kindergarten and Grade 1; Grades 2 and 3 forthcoming.)

Canada. Department of Indian and Northern Affairs. Teaching an Algonkian Language as a Second Language. A Core Program for Kindergarten. Ottawa: Department of Indian and Northern Affairs, Canada, 1978.

Canada. Department of Indian and Northern Affairs. Teaching an Algonkian Language as a Second Language. A Core Program for Grade One. Ottawa: Department of Indian and Northern Affairs, Canada, 1978.

Canada. Department of Indian and Northern Affairs. Teaching an Algonkian Language as a Second Language. A Core Program for Grade Two. Ottawa: Department of Indian and Northern Affairs, Canada, 1980.

Krashen, S., and Terrell, T. The Natural Approach - Language Acquisition in the Classroom. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1983.

Larsen-Freeman, Diane. Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986.

Littlewood, W. Communicative Language Teaching - An Introduction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981.

Littlewood, W. Foreign and Second Language Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

Ontario. Ministry of Education. People of Native Ancestry, Senior Division. Curriculum Guideline. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1981.

Richards, J. C., and Rodgers, T. S. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986.

Stern, H. H. Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1983.

Yalden, Janice. Communicative Language Teaching: Principles and Practice. Toronto: OISE Press, 1980.

Assessment and Evaluation

Etobicoke Board of Education. Making the Grade. Scarborough, Ont.: Prentice-Hall Canada, 1986.

Valette, R. M. Modern Language Testing. 2nd ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1977.

Classroom Resources

Communicative Activities, Games, Music, and Visual Aids

Boight, R. C. Invitation to Learning: Volume I, the Learning Center Handbook. Washington, D.C.: Acropolis Books, 1974.

Bowen, Betty Morgan. Look Here! Visual Aids in Language Teaching. London: Macmillan, 1982.

Byrne, Donn. A First Book of Board Games. Montréal: Centre éducatif et culturel, 1980. (Available from 8101 Boulevard Métropolitain, Montréal, Quebec H1J 1J9. Includes board games and teacher's guide.)

Eger, F. W., comp. Eskimo Inuit Games, Book One. Vancouver: X-Press, 1986. (Available from 3905 West Twelfth Ave., Vancouver, British Columbia V6R 2P1.)

Golick, Margie. Deal Me In! New York: Monarch Press, 1981. (Available from 1230 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10020, U.S.A.)

Graham, Carolyn. Jazz Chants. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1978. (Teacher's book and tape)

Graham, Carolyn. Jazz Chants for Children. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1979. (Teacher's book and tape)

Holden, Susan, ed. Visual Aids for Classroom Interaction. London: Modern English Publications, 1978.

Klippel, F. Keep Talking. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

Lee, W. R. Language Teaching Games and Contents. 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1979.

Lonergan, Jack. Video in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

Maley, A., and Duff, A. Drama Techniques in Language Teaching. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982.

Moskowitz, G. Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1978.

Ontario. Ministry of Education. People of Native Ancestry. A Resource Guide for the Intermediate Division. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario, 1977.

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Ontario. Ministry of Education. People of Native Ancestry. Resource List for the Primary and Junior Divisions. Toronto: Ministry of Education, Ontario. 1975.

Opie, Iona, and Opie, Peter. Children's Games in Street and Playground. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1969.

Orlick, Terry. The Cooperative Sports and Games Book. New York: Pantheon Books, 1978.

Rinvolucri, M. Grammar Games. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

Ur, Penny. Discussions That Work. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981.

Ur, Penny. Teaching Listening Comprehension. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

Waynant, L. F., and Wilson, R. M. Learning Centers - A Guide for Effective Use. Paoli, Penn.: Instructo Corp., 1974. (Available from Scholar's Choice.)

Wright, Andrew. Visual Materials for the Language Teacher. London: Longman, 1975.

Wright, Andrew. 1000 Pictures for Teachers to Copy. Don Mills, Ont.: Addison-Wesley; London: Collins ELT, 1984.

Wright, A.; Betteridge, D.; and Buckby, M. Games for Language Learning. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

Computer-Related Resources

Ahmad, K.; Corbett, G.; Rogers, M.; and Sussex, R. Computers, Language Learning and Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985.

Higgins, John, and Johns, Tim. Computers in Language Learning. London: Collins ELT; Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1984.

Kenning, M. J., and Kenning, M. M. Introduction to Computer Assisted Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1983.

Underwood, John H. Linguistics, Computers and the Language Teacher: A Communicative Approach. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1984.

Legends

Ahenakew, B., and Hardlotte, S., eds. Cree Legends, Vol. I and II. Saskatoon: Saskatchewan Indian Cultural College, 1973.

Caswell, Helen. Shadows From the Singing House: Eskimo Folk Tales. Edmonton: Hurtig, 1968.

Clark, Ella Elizabeth. Indian Legends of Canada. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1960.

Coatsworth, E., and Coatsworth, D., comps. The Adventures of Nanabush: Ojibway Indian Stories. Toronto: Doubleday Canada, 1979.

Elston, Georgia, comp. and ed. Giving - Ojibwa Stories and Legends from the Children of Curve Lake. Lakefield, Ont.: Waapoone Publishing, 1985. (Available from Waapone Publishing and Promotion, Lakefield, Ontario K0L 2H0.)

Erdoes, Richard, and Ortiz, Alfonso, comps. and eds. American Indian Myths and Legends. New York: Pantheon Books, 1984.

Harris, Christie L. Once Upon a Totem. New York: Atheneum, 1963.

Hill, Kathleen L. Glooscap and His Magic: Legends of the Wabanki Indians. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1963.

Johnston, B. Ojibway Ceremonies. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1983.

Johnston, B. Ojibway Heritage. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1976.

Johnston, Patonella. Tales of Nokomis. Toronto: Musson, 1975.

Melzak, Ronald. The Day Tuk Became a Hunter and Other Eskimo Stories. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1967.

Morrisseau, Norval. Legends of My People: The Great Ojibway. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson, 1977.

Nowlan, Alden. Nine Micmac Legends. Hantsport, N.S.: Lancelot, 1983.

Ray, C., and Stevens, J. R. Sacred Legends of the Sandy Lake Cree. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1971.

Reid, Dorothy. Tales of Nanabozho. Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1963.

Tales From the Longhouse. Sidney, B.C.: Gray's Publishing, 1973.

Association Publications

The Canadian Journal of Native Education
Department of Educational Foundations
5-109 Education North
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
T6G 2G5

TESL Canada Journal and TESL Ontario Journal
703 Spadina Avenue
Toronto, Ontario
M5S 2J4
Periodicals on teaching English as a second language, with articles on methodology applicable to any language. Members of TESL Ontario are automatically members of TESL Canada.

The Mokakit Newsletter
Mokakit Indian Education Research Association
Faculty of Education
University of British Columbia
Vancouver, British Columbia
V6T 1Z5

Networks
c/o Cathy McGregor
Program Specialist
Department of Education
Yellowknife, N.W.T.
X1A 2L9
Newsletter of the Special Interest Group on Language Development in Native Education of TESL Canada.

Wawatay News
Wawatay Native Communications Society
Box 1180
Sioux Lookout, Ontario
P0V 2T0

Sources of Teaching Materials

Department of Native Studies
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2
(Readers and study guides in Cree, Eastern Ojibwe, and Odawa)

Indian and Northern Affairs Canada
Public Enquiries and Response Division
Communications Branch
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0H4
(Catalogue of current publications on Native culture)

Iroqrafts Limited
R.R. 2
Ohsweken, Ontario
N0A 1M0
(Catalogue of Iroquoian and Algonquian publications and craft supplies)

James Bay Cree Cultural Education Centre
P.O. Box 390
Chisasibi, Quebec
J0M 1E0

MacRae's Indian Book Distributors
1605 Cole Street
P.O. Box 652
Enumclaw,
Washington 98022
U.S.A.
(Catalogue of titles from several publishers)

Manitoba Textbook Bureau
277 Hutchings Street
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R2Z 2R4
(Native-language publications in Cree, Ojibwe, Saulteaux, Dakota/Sioux, and English)

Ministry of Education
Centre for Early Childhood and Elementary Education
Queen's Park
Mowat Block, 17th Floor
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 1L2
(Curriculum guideline and resource guides)

Ministry of Education
Centre for Secondary and Adult Education
Queen's Park
Mowat Block, 16th Floor
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 1L2
(Curriculum guideline and resource guides)

Mohawk Nation
Box 1251
Cornwall, Ontario
K6H 1B3
(Akwesasne Notes Products catalogue for books and crafts)

North American Indian Travelling College
R.R. 3
Cornwall Island, Ontario
K6H 5R7
(Catalogues of films and publications)

Ojibway and Cree Cultural Centre
71 Third Avenue
Timmins, Ontario
P4N 1C2

R. Schneider Publishers
312 Linwood Avenue
Stevens Point
Wisconsin 54481
U.S.A.
(Books on Iroquois, Ojibway, and other nations' crafts)

Woodland Indian Cultural Centre
P.O. Box 1506
Brantford, Ontario
N3T 5V6

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